

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
Social Studies in the Colleges, 1909-1929, by Prof. A. C. Krey	319
Early Plans for World Peace, by Prof. C. C. Tansill	321
Internationalism in the '60s by C. E. Persinger	324
Significant Contributions of Germany to World History, by Prof. H. J. Carman	327
A-D-U Tests and Examinations, by Elizabeth Mason	331
Objective Tests the Best Discoverer of Pupil Attitudes, by Samuel Everett	335
A New Approach to the Study of the Constitution, by H. Arnold Bennett	337
The Objectives of Civics Instruction, by A. W. Brown	341
A Thanksgiving Day Play, by Thyra Carter	343

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, by W. G. Kimmel, 345; Notes on Periodical Literature, by G. B. Richards, 347; Book Reviews, edited by Profs. H. J. Carman and J. Bartlett Brebner, 348; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 359; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 362.

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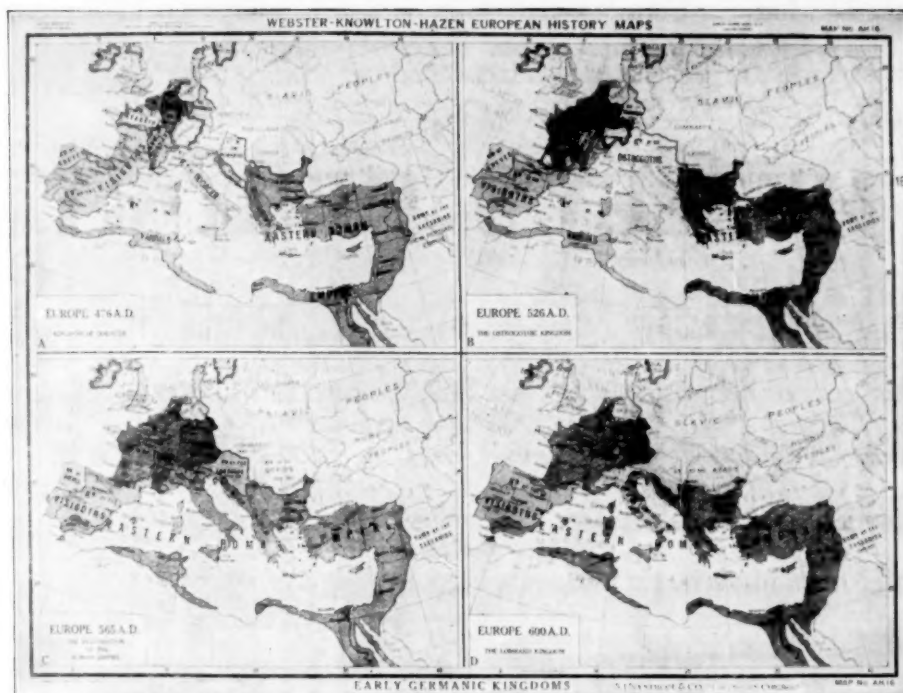
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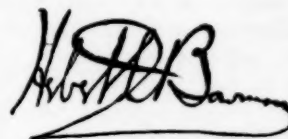
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The Historical Outlook

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Social Studies in the Colleges, 1909 to 1929

BY PROFESSOR A. C. KREY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

THE FRESHMAN COURSE

Should primary source material be used exclusively and at frequent intervals for the solution of problems, or only occasionally to illustrate the historians' task? Is it best to give preliminary instruction in the art of taking notes or to impart such advice in connection with the first conference on the actual notes of the student, and how often during the year is it desirable to have such note conferences? How much reading should be required as a minimum of each student? Should the student's term paper be based solely on primary sources, on a mixture of primary and secondary references, or upon secondary material alone? Is it better to have a series of such compositions smaller in scope or to allow the student the whole semester in which to achieve a respectable paper?

Such were among the chief preoccupations of teachers of freshman courses in history twenty years ago, as the file of the *History Teachers Magazine* for that year reveals. Examination of the reports of the annual meetings of the Association fully confirms this impression. Freshman courses in history were regularly "introduction" courses, introducing the students not to college, but to further work in history or social science. The earlier periods of history with their treatment of the genesis of institutions were preferred for this purpose. Medieval history, English history with emphasis on the medieval period, or Ancient history served in about that order of preference. A whole year was allotted to each, and it was usually assumed that the instructor would not be able to cover the period in that time owing to the requirements of "training." Courses of other types were rare, the *Epochs of History* at Columbia being the most prominent example. Even Morse Stephens, usually considered a pioneer in the use of general survey courses, was still teaching his freshmen English history on the basis of constitutional documents.

The purpose of the introductory course was common to the whole country. Variations in practice were to be explained rather by the differences in resources with which different colleges sought to achieve this purpose. Students were assumed to have a serious intellectual purpose in coming to college. Though members of the faculties might at times have misgivings as to the correctness of this assumption, there was no open confession of such doubt, and certainly it was not allowed to alter the purpose and aim of the course. The highest function of the introductory course was to train students for advanced

work, in the hope that they might become distinguished historians or, at least, social scientists. It was recognized that students with other interests would enroll, but they would be benefited by the incidental values. Only the ablest students, measured both by achievement and interest, could hope to satisfy the purpose of the course, but for such was the kingdom of heaven. Such was the ideal all the way from Maine to California, from Texas to Minnesota, and from Harvard down to "Siwash" College. The goal was intellectual; specifically, the training of historians and social scientists. All else was incidental and non-determinative.

A glance over the catalogues of today shows many of the courses of twenty years ago listed under the same numbers and sometimes with the same chronological range. History 1 is still the freshman course at Harvard, though it has become European history instead of Medieval history, or perhaps History 1 and 2 of former times have been combined. Medieval, English, and Ancient history are still the beginning courses in many places. It would, however, be rash to conclude that the content of the courses is still the same. Anyone who was present at the luncheon conference on problems of freshman history instruction in Indianapolis during the annual meeting of the Association would scarcely regard the first three paragraphs of this article as descriptive of that discussion. The air was filled with references to "survey" courses, "orientation," "cultural backgrounds," "stimulation of interest," "threshold" or "corridor" courses. If "training" was mentioned at all, it was overwhelmed by these other references.

The contrast between the spirit of 1909 and 1929 appears clearly in Mr. Van Slyck's description of the present freshman course at Yale as opposed to Mr. Durfee's description of the freshman course at that institution in the first volume of the *History Teachers Magazine*. The latter then felt it necessary to apologize for the length of the period covered (875-1870) and was at great pains to show how, despite that handicap, the orthodox ideals of training were still being served. The writer does not recall any apologetic note in Mr. Van Slyck's very lucid description of the present course on the "Development of Western Civilization" which extends over a much longer period and a much wider territory. The list of readings and the methods of procedure in the present course contrast quite as strikingly with those revealed by the syllabus of the earlier course. The

present course serves a very different purpose apparently, or perhaps many additional purposes.

The round table conference on the freshman course which followed the luncheon meeting at Indianapolis consisted largely of a description of courses as now conducted at the institutions represented there. Perhaps the most startling impression an instructor of 1909 might have received lay in the diversity of courses and procedure presented there. Apparently no two courses, certainly no two there described, were very much alike, though individuals prefaced their remarks with the statement that they were following along the same lines as some other institution. Differences rather than similarities predominated, differences in content, in procedure, and in aim. The seeker after unity and harmony would have had a very unpleasant afternoon at that afternoon session in 1928.

Much has happened in the interval of twenty years, of course, to account for these differences. There was the war with its irresistible emphasis upon the immediate past. Under its influence the emphasis in freshman courses was in many places shifted from the earlier period to the modern, from which position it has receded very slowly if at all. Then followed the deluge of enrollment in college which so harassed administrative officials and forced them to adopt emergency measures of various kinds. It was perhaps the overwhelming pressure of adjustment to immediate situations which led each institution to solve its difficulties alone. The freshman courses in history and related subjects felt this situation more, perhaps, than did other fields. Cost of instruction and general social utility combined to turn the thoughts of administrators to our field for relief, with the result that freshman courses have now become in many places "service" courses for the whole college. This fact has definitely affected the aim, the content, and method of the freshman courses and explains in part the great diversity which has arisen in the colleges of the country, each college tending to warp the course to its own peculiar needs or conditions. The pressure of growing numbers still continues, except in those institutions which have been able to establish a restricted and selective enrollment. It is, perhaps, too early to determine whether or not this condition will bring about a definite differentiation between the state universities and the privately endowed institutions.

Meanwhile, the pragmatic philosophy of James applied to education by Dewey and to the social science field, including history, by many both within and without the field, has been becoming widely accepted—especially by administrative authorities. The influence of this development has been to accentuate the emphasis upon the immediate, the direct and the practical. It has given marked support to the use of modern history, or the modern in history, even to the use of current events and current problems. It has also given support to the emphasis upon the economic, the social, and even the cultural phases of history. This idea lies behind the development of courses on the history of civilization, contemporary

civilization, and orientation courses. It may, indeed, have been of some importance in changing the name of the *History Teachers Magazine* to the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE MOVEMENT

Thus far attention has been concentrated on the work of the first year as revealing most clearly the character of the changes which have occurred. In one sense the changes in the first year's work describe those of the first two years, as these are the years of the first courses in history, political science, economics, and sociology. The development of the junior college, which is going on more rapidly than available statistics reveal, is still too young to have disclosed its full effects. Whether the junior college is a continuation of the high school in the local community or a separate feature of arts colleges or normal schools, its emphasis tends toward the rounding out of a general education rather than preparation for professional work. Its influence may be strongly in the direction of "orientation" or "citizenship" courses of various kinds. On the other hand, it can never completely divest itself of the preparatory function. The result may be a compromise between these two functions. In any event the junior college movement is bound to have a very serious effect upon the four-year college. Whether the four-year colleges by practicing selective enrollment may assume that their students are as well prepared as the average graduate of a general junior college and remain four-year colleges on that basis, or whether the upper two years of the ordinary arts college will become amalgamated with one or more years of the graduate school are interesting and vital questions which remain to be worked out.

THE UPPER YEARS

In the upper years of the college courses the emphasis in the social science field is more definitely upon scholarly advance in the field and more nearly resembles the work of twenty years ago. This is, however, only relatively true. The same forces which have operated so powerfully upon the first two years continue to exercise some influence. The great numbers of courses upon recent developments in various fields of social science, the transformation of what were formerly somewhat intensive subject-matter courses into general lecture courses and the multiplication of "practical" courses, especially in the fields of economics, sociology, and political science, reveal only too clearly that the new order is making itself felt here as well.

Graduate work has been brought into closer relationship with the work of the junior and senior years. Perhaps the great numbers of students which now appear in graduate schools have lowered somewhat the master-apprentice relation which formerly characterized graduate work. If so, there is some compensation in the thought that the upper class work has been enriched. The most striking changes which have appeared at these levels are the addition of many new courses. This statement may be less true of history than of its daughters, economics, political science, and

sociology; but it is true of all of the social science departments. Another change of interest and consequence is the rapid extension of statistical methods to all of the social science fields, even to history. Natural enough in economics, this method of investigation has been taken over rapidly by sociology, has entered strongly into some phases of political science and is being used to some extent in history. The greatest change, however, lies in the great increase of interest in the whole social science field as reflected both in the numerous new courses offered and even more in the great numbers of students who are enrolling in advanced courses.

It may be well to summarize these changes as they manifest themselves in the earlier years of college work. The function of the freshman course, which formerly was primarily one of professional training, has become one of college service. The subject-matter, formerly clustered around the beginnings of institutions, has concerned itself more largely with modern institutions and problems. Chronologically, the freshman courses either deal with much longer periods as general surveys, or with more recent periods than formerly. Topically, the emphasis has shifted from the predominantly political and economic to the inclusion of the social and cultural, somewhat at the expense of the former. Pedagogically, the emphasis has shifted from concern about what should be expected of the student to greater concern about what is expected of the teacher. Serious intellectual purpose on the part of the student was formerly

assumed, and the pedagogical burden of interest, willingness to work, and capacity to work rested upon the student. If he failed to show these, it was just too bad for the student. That assumption is no longer made. It is now the instructor's duty to arouse interest, to stimulate activity, if possible, and to impart a sense of satisfaction. If the instructor fails to accomplish these results, it is almost equally bad for the instructor. Hence the added emphasis upon pedagogical arts in the earlier years. Along with this array of changes, and affecting them all, is the fact that, while twenty years ago there was substantial unity among the widely scattered colleges, there is now the utmost diversity.

Well, what of it? The instructor of twenty years ago still teaching freshmen is probably doomed to disappointment if he has been waiting for conditions to return to those earlier standards. No doubt some of the changes have been purely emergency measures, a grasping after the most immediate, most obvious, or most plausible remedies to solve immediate problems. These will presumably be discarded when the opportunity for calm appraisal arrives. Many of the changes, however, especially the more fundamental, are here to stay. More careful treatment of the latter can only come about when enrollment increases subside. This promises to come within a very few years, if the enrollment changes in the lower schools afford a sound criterion for judgment. If so, it may be opportune to prepare for a careful appraisal of history courses as to content, procedure, and aims.

Early Plans for World Peace

BY PROFESSOR C. C. TANSILL, AMERICAN UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The recent acceptance of the Kellogg Peace Plan by certain nations of the world would seem to usher in an era of world peace. For more than six centuries such a consummation has been devoutly wished by representative men of every nationality; men whose plans to outlaw war have such a modern cast of thought that we now clearly perceive how the peace program of today is merely the adaptation of a medieval formula. In the last decade of the fourteenth century, Dan Chaucer, in the famous *Canterbury Tales*, pithily observed that there is nothing "newe under the sonne." In the matter of international arbitration and of leagues of nations he evidently knew whereof he wrote, for nearly a hundred years previous a French *avocat royal* had published a plan for a league to enforce peace. The pacifist movement had already been launched.

PIERRE DU BOIS

De Recuperatione Terre Sanctus, 1306

The closing years of the thirteenth century marked the climacteric of two great institutions—the Holy Roman Empire and the Papacy. Under the Hohenstaufens the prestige of the Empire had vanished, and the rising tide of nationalism in France and England

boded ill for extravagant Papal pretensions.¹ In 1294, shortly after Boniface VIII had ascended the Papal throne, a violent quarrel broke out between the new occupant of St. Peter's chair and Philip the Fair, king of France. Philip, with the support of the French nation, bade defiance to the Pope, and in 1303, a band of adventurers led by an agent of the French sovereign, attacked the Pope in his summer residence at Anagni. The Papal guards were dispersed, and Boniface VIII was taken prisoner. He was quickly rescued, but the humiliation and indignity he was forced to undergo so crushed his spirit that he soon died. With "Boniface VIII fell the medieval Papacy."²

The problem of the fourteenth century was how "to restore tranquility to the distracted and demoralized fragments of what had lately been Christendom." The age of "assured faith" and "implicit obedience" had given way to one of doubt and discord: the vision of the peace of God had been clouded over by the angry realities of man's strife. Some panacea for world travail seemed imperatively necessary, and thus we come to the contributions of two representative men of that age, Dante Alighieri and Pierre Du Bois.

According to Dante himself, world peace is "the target at which all my shafts are sped." But to him world peace appeared possibly only with the maintenance of a world-empire and a world-emperor, so in his celebrated treatise, *De Monarchia*, Dante presented a fervid *apologia* for the Holy Roman Empire. In reality, however, the Empire was now an outworn institution, and Dante's defense was not "what it has been said to be, the swan-song of something dying: it was rather an attempt to resuscitate the dead."³

In Pierre Du Bois we have a man of very different mould. Characterizations of the man and his works stretch the entire octave of praise and condemnation. By some he has been hailed as the greatest "idealist and journalist of the Middle Ages," while to Dr. J. N. Figgis, he appears as a "cold, able scoundrel"; a "non-moral politician, to whom the means were nothing in comparison with the end."⁴

Du Bois was a Norman, born about 1255, who studied at the University of Paris, and was by profession a lawyer. He appears to have amassed a considerable fortune in pleading causes arising out of clerical property, but he was endowed with a journalist's temperament, so from 1300 to 1314 he issued successive pamphlets in which diverse topics were given due consideration.

His earliest work which has survived is *De Abreviatione*, in which he adumbrated a plan for world peace through the agency of a league of nations under the domination of the king of France.⁵ But the treatise upon which his fame chiefly rests is *De Recuperatione Terre Sancte*, written between 1305 and 1307.⁶ The ostensible purpose of *De Recuperatione* is to outline a plan for the recovery of the Holy Land. The treatise, however, is by no means confined to this subject, for we find discussions of such various topics as the disendowment of the Church and of the monasteries; the need of the secular State for absolute authority; the enfranchisement of women; mixed education; simplification of the legal system; and of particular interest for this study—international arbitration. As Bishop Stubbs was wont to declare: "Everything is in it, including the new woman."⁷

In order to counterbalance the restive nobility of birth and sword, Philip the Fair had created a new nobility of the intellect, and of these *chevaliers du roi*, Du Bois was an important member. It was quite natural, therefore, that in the bitter struggle between Pope Boniface VIII and Philip the Fair, the sympathies of Du Bois should be wholly with the latter. Indeed, his devotion to the Crown reveals the real purpose of *De Abreviatione* and *De Recuperatione*, which was mainly to advocate a league of nations with the kingdom of France as the dominant member of the association.⁸

This league to enforce peace was not to be world-wide in scope; it was to consist merely of Roman Catholic nations. To Du Bois, the Eastern Empire and Church were objects of suspicion, and the Saracens and other infidels were created only to satisfy the deadly zeal of crusading armies. But in order to form this Catholic league it was necessary first for the Pope

to summon a general council of princes and prelates to consider world problems. This council should ordain that war between Catholic nations should be outlawed:⁹

"No Catholic should take up arms against other Catholics, and no one shall shed baptized blood. Those who wish to fight shall fight against the enemies of the Christian faith, the Holy Land, and the Holy Places of God, but not against their brothers, lest that bring them to corporal and spiritual perdition."

In case of serious disputes between different states of this Catholic league, a solution was presented in the form of a world court much like the Permanent Court of International Justice established at the Hague under the Covenant of the League of Nations. Provision for such a court was outlined by Du Bois as follows:¹⁰

"The general council must ordain the election of religious or lay arbitrators, prudent, experienced, and faithful men, who shall be sworn to choose three prelates as judges, and three other persons from each side, men of substance, and such as are obviously incapable of being corrupted by love, hate, fear, greed, or anything else; these shall come together in a suitable place, and having been strictly sworn, and presented before their coming with the articles of the petition and the defense, fully set forth, shall receive witnesses and instruments, and first rejecting all that is superfluous and beside the point, shall diligently examine them. They shall listen to the examination of each witness by at least two men, sworn, and faithful and true; the depositions shall be written down and very diligently examined, and most carefully kept by the judges, to prevent fraud and falsehood....In giving judgment, if it be expedient, let them have assessors who are to their knowledge faithful and skilled in divine, and canon, and civil law. If either party be discontented with their sentence, the same judges shall send the process and judgment to the Apostolic Seat, for it to be amended or altered by the Supreme Pontiff for the time being as shall seem just to him; or if not, to be confirmed for a perpetual memorial and registered in the chronicles of the Holy Roman Church."

In order to maintain peace among the members of this Christian brotherhood, it was necessary to establish a schedule of pains and penalties that would be rigorously enforced against belligerent princes. These warlike spirits were to "incur the loss of all their goods, arms and other necessities of life or warfare of every description." In this way, those who begin war and those who wilfully lend them help or counsel shall "be punished by the lord Pope." All punishment, however, was to be strictly temporal. The erring ones were not to be excommunicated or anathematized, for this would endanger their souls and thus "increase the number of the damned."¹¹

The honor conferred upon the Pope by making him the Supreme Arbitrator in the disputes among the members of the Catholic league was in the nature of a recompense for the loss of his temporal power which was to be transferred to the French sovereign. In order that His Holiness might sustain his judicial honors in the most proper manner, he was to be granted an adequate annual pension.

Leadership within the league would, as a matter of course, be assumed by France, for¹²

"It is the peculiar merit of the French to have a surer judgment than other nations, not to act without consideration, nor to place themselves in opposition to right reason."

It has been said that Dante's *De Monarchia* was "an epitaph rather than a prophecy." *De Recuperatione*, on the other hand, was a prophecy rather than a program, and even to the present day successive plans for world peace have been greatly influenced by this first exemplar.

EMERIC CRUCÉ

Le Nouveau Cynée, 1623

The social, religious, and intellectual turmoil of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries completely shattered the medieval concept of the unity of Christendom. There now ensued a secularization of thought which permanently divided Europe and prepared the way for the rise of the national state. Henceforth, Europe became merely "a geographical expression, with political atomism for its creed."¹³

But the message of Du Bois, world peace through world organization, was not wholly forgotten by later generations. The catalogue of wars became as long and as dreary as the Homeric catalogue of ships, and in the second decade of the seventeenth century there began a period of international strife that was so bitter and devastating that thoughtful men feared for civilization itself unless the future Peace of Europe could be ensured by some collective guarantee. Again, it was a Frenchman who pointed the way—Émeric Crucé.¹⁴

In 1623, Crucé published in Paris a brochure entitled *Le Nouveau Cynée ou Discours d'Estat représentant les occasions et moyens d'establisir une paix generale*.¹⁵ The title itself suggests the existence of a former Cineas whom Plutarch describes as the sage counsellor of Pyrrhus, familiar to the student because of certain dubious victories. The new Cineas had a more potent message that contemplated nothing less than universal peace guaranteed by a league of sovereigns.

Like *De Recuperatione* of Du Bois, the *Nouveau Cynée* of Crucé comprehended many topics besides that of world peace. The economic structure of France was decidedly faulty, and its obvious defects are discussed by Crucé with suggestions for reform. Both Henry IV and Sully, his Superintendent of Finance, had striven to remedy conditions, with the result that "France at this time underwent a temporary expansion in agriculture, industry, colonies, the marine, and internal and external commerce."¹⁶ But all these "excellent and well-planned policies were ended when Henry IV was killed in 1610, and fourteen years of economic as well as political stagnation, were to follow."¹⁷

It was towards the end of this period of economic disorganization that Crucé published his treatise, and we find in *Le Nouveau Cynée* more or less extended treatment of such various subjects as agrarian encouragement, free trade, national finance, inland waterways, education, and industrial development.¹⁸ But it is with his project for world peace that we are primarily interested. It was simple and easily understood. First of all, Crucé emphasizes the fundamental equality of all human beings. To him it was

obvious that there "is an amity and kinship between men."¹⁹ Why, therefore, should a²⁰

"Frenchman wish harm to an Englishman, a Spaniard, or a Hindoo? I cannot wish it when I consider that they are men like me, that I am subject like them to error and sin and that all nations are bound together by a natural and consequently indestructible tie, which ensures that a man cannot consider another a stranger, unless he follows the common and inveterate opinion that he has received from his predecessors."

The Wars of Religion that were even then being waged with pitiless ferocity were in opposition to the very spirit of Christianity. All religions tend to the same end,²¹

"Namely, the recognition and adoration of the Divinity. And if some do not choose the good road or the legitimate way, it is more from simplicity and ill-teaching than from malice, and, therefore, they are more worthy of compassion than of hatred. Is it necessary to wage war for the diversity of ceremonies, I will not say of religion, since the chief object of these lies in the adoration of God, who demands rather the heart of men than the exterior worship and sacrifices, of which so much parade is made."

In the name of Christian civilization it is imperative that war be forever outlawed, and Crucé then presents his formula for preserving peace, a formula similar to that of Du Bois—A World Court. He would choose a city where²²

"All sovereigns should have perpetually their ambassadors, in order that the differences that might arise should be settled by the judgment of the whole assembly. The ambassadors of those who would be interested would plead there the grievances of their masters and the other deputies would judge them without prejudice. And to give more authority to the judgment, one would take advice of the big republics, who would likewise have their agents in the same place....All the said Princes will swear to hold as inviolable law what would be ordained by the majority of votes in the said assembly....If anyone rebelled against the decree of so notable a company, he would receive the disgrace of all other Princes, who would find means to bring him to reason. Now the most commodious place for such an assembly is Venice, because it is practically neutral and indifferent to all Princes; added thereto that it is near the most important monarchies of the earth."

This congress of ambassadors was not to be concerned merely with definite and important disputes between member states, but would also "meet discontents half way, and would appease them by gentle means, if it could be done, or, in case of necessity, by force."²³ Political disorder in any state might also require collective intervention, for if you chance to see the house of your neighbor²⁴

"Burning or falling, you have cause for fear, since human society is one body, of which all the members are in sympathy in such a manner that it is impossible for the sickness of the one not to be communicated to the other."

It is apparent that justification of armed intervention to preserve the established order of things was not first penned by the astute supporters of the Holy Alliance of the early nineteenth century.

It might well be pertinent to observe that these particular provisions of Crucé's plan bear a very close resemblance to Article 11 of the Covenant of the League of Nations:

"Any war or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the Members of the League or not, is hereby declared a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League shall take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations."

In an interesting article, M. Vesnitch affirms that the ideas of Crucé "proceed very closely from those of Du Bois."²⁵ This, however, is not strictly true. The League to Enforce Peace, as outlined by Du Bois, was to include only Christian princes of Roman Catholic persuasion, while the international organization adumbrated by Crucé was to be universal in its scope, and even such distant and infidel rulers as the Emperor of the Turks, the kings of Persia, China, Japan, and Morocco, the Great Mogul, and the Precop of Tartary, all were to have full representation in the congress of ambassadors. In the order of precedence observed in the congress, the representative of the Pope was to have the honor of the first place, while the second place was to be allotted to the representative of the Emperor of the Turks.²⁶

Again, the plan of Du Bois contemplated an association of nations with France in the dominant rôle. Crucé, though likewise a Frenchman, sought no special advantages for his native land. Anxious for world peace, he wished to have it guaranteed by a league of nations world-wide in membership. Far-seeing pacifist that he was, he knew that the only stable basis for international peace is international understanding. In a congress of nations, individual differences could best be smoothed, and world public opinion developed. Such is the basic idea of the Assembly of the League of Nations, and this fact lends added force to Chaucer's words of wisdom: "There is nothing newe under the sonne."

²⁵ Bryce, J. *The Holy Roman Empire* (N. Y., 1904), chaps. x-xiii; Boutaric, E. *La France sous Philippe le Bel* (Paris, 1861), pp. 88-119; Emerton, E. *The Beginnings of Modern Europe* (N. Y., 1917), chaps. ii-iii.

²⁶ Creighton, M. *History of the Papacy* (N. Y., 1897), vol. I, p. 32; Renan, E. *Études sur la politique religieuse du règne de Philippe le Bel* (Paris, 1899), pp. 1-250; Dupuy, M. *Traitéz concernant l'histoire de France* (Paris, 1634), pp. 191ff; Lizerand, G. *Clément V et Philippe le Bel* (Paris, 1911), chap. I.

²⁷ Allen, J. W. Marsilio of Padua, in *The Social and Political Ideas of Some Great Medieval Thinkers* (ed. by F. J. C. Hearnshaw, London, 1923), p. 170; Smith, E. S. Dante, in *op. cit.*, p. 109; Reade, W. H. V. *De Monarchia* (N. Y., 1916), pp. i-xxxii; Vesnitch, M. R. Deux précurseurs de pacifisme et de l'arbitrage international, in *Revue d'histoire diplomatique*, 1911, No. 1, pp. 31-33.

²⁸ A Forgotten Radical, *Cambridge Review*, June 13, 1900, pp. 373-74; Knight, W. S. M. A Medieval Pacifist—Pierre Du Bois, in *Transactions of the Grotius Society*, vol. IX (London, 1924), pp. 1-16; Haureau, B. Pierre Du Bois, *Journal des savants*, Février, 1894, pp. 117-18.

²⁹ Powicke, F. M. Pierre Du Bois: A Medieval Radical, in *Historical Essays* (ed. by T. F. Tout and J. Tait, Manchester, 1907), pp. 169-91; Wailly, N. de. *Memoire sur un opuscule anonyme*, in *Bibliothèque de l'Ecole des Chartes*, 2d series, vol. III (Paris, 1846), p. 273ff.

³⁰ Langlois, Ch. V. De Recuperatione Terre Sancte, in *Collection de textes pour servir à l'étude et à l'enseignement de l'histoire* (Paris, 1891), vol. IX, pp. iv-xxiv and 1-140.

³¹ Figgis, J. N. *From Gerson to Grotius* (Cambridge, 1907), p. 27; Boutaric, E. *Op. cit.*, pp. 118-19; Power, E. Pierre Du Bois, in *Social and Political Ideas of the Middle Ages*, pp. 139-65.

³² Brentano, F. *Le Moyen Age* (Paris, 1922), pp. 339-44; Ter Meulen, J. *Der Gedanke der Internationalen Organisation in seiner Entwicklung* (The Hague, 1917), pp. 106-107; Renan, E., *Op. cit.*, pp. 253ff.

³³ *De Recuperatione*, p. 7.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

³⁵ *De Recuperatione*, pp. 8-9.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 20ff. Hill, D. J. *History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe* (N. Y., 1906), vol. II, pp. 172-73; Meyer, E. H. *Die Staats und Völkerrechtlichen Ideen von Peter dubois* (Marburg, 1910), pp. 50-119; Lange, C. L. *Histoire de l'internationalisme* (Christiania, 1919), pp. 90ff.

³⁷ Gooch, G. P. *International Relations, The Pilgrim*, October, 1924, pp. 53-54.

³⁸ Nys, E. *Études de droit international et de droit politique* (Paris, 1896), pp. 508ff; Louis-Lucas, P. *Un plan de paix générale et de liberté du commerce au XVIIe siècle* (Paris, 1919), p. 30.

³⁹ Balch, T. W. *The New Cyneas of Emeric Crucé* (Phila., 1909), pp. iii-xxxi; Crick, D. *Le Nouveau Cynée d'Émeric Crucé*, *Revue de droit international et de législation comparée*, vol. XII, pp. 3-18.

⁴⁰ Palm, F. C. *The Economic Policies of Richelieu*, *University of Illinois Studies in Social Sciences*, vol. IX, No. 4 (Urbana, 1922), p. 20.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 20-22; Bridges, J. H. *France under Richelieu and Colbert* (Edinburgh, 1866), pp. 25ff.

⁴² *Le Nouveau Cynée* (Balch, ed.), pp. 60-68, 97-102, 302-318; Louis-Lucas, P. *Op. cit.*, chap. I.

⁴³ *Le Nouveau Cynée*, p. 22.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 84-86.

⁴⁵ *Le Nouveau Cynée*, p. 88.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 102-104, 122.

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 122.

⁴⁸ Quoted in Butler, Sir G. *Studies in Statecraft* (Cambridge, 1920), pp. 98-99.

⁴⁹ *Revue d'histoire diplomatique*, 1911, No. 1, p. 25.

⁵⁰ *Le Nouveau Cynée*, pp. 102-117; Louis-Lucas, *op. cit.*, pp. 48-49.

Internationalism in the '60s

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Mankind's long striving for a "world state" has completed its first phase; has entered upon its second; and has brought forth faint visions of a third.

The establishment of world-empire by conquest is no longer feasible; nationalism and democracy together have dealt that ambition a death blow. The development of a world state by co-operation of national governments is now being attempted. The creation of a democratic world state seems distant;

various "brotherhoods of man" have been in process of formation for a century or more; their ultimate possibilities, however, remain yet undetermined.

This paper is a brief and more or less superficial account of the vision of internationalism that came to the world of the 1860s; that at least largely failed of realization at that time, but that made easier the way for the more successful endeavors of the next generation of internationalists.

Three movements marked this endeavor of the governments of the 1860s to bring about a greater degree of international co-operation. All three had their origin in continental Europe. All three met with nonco-operation—with "passive resistance"—from the United States. Two of the three have since been realized on the world-scale envisioned in the '60s; the other seems less in prospect now than then.

I. A MARINE SIGNALS CODE

The first and weakest of these three proposals was that of France and England for an international code of merchant marine signals. By investigation and by joint commission these two nations during 1864 to 1866 devised a marine signal code of a sufficiently "cosmopolitan character" to seem to justify them in inviting other nations, including the United States, to join with them in its adoption and use.¹

To their invitation the American department of state replied that the matter "would receive the attention of the Government of the United States."² When a year had elapsed without further response than this, it was hinted by the European powers that a reply would be appreciated. The American secretary of state responded that the matter had been referred to the secretary of the treasury, who would select "competent persons....to examine into, and, if deemed practicable, to commend the adoption of this code....for the merchant service."³

If such action ever was taken, it does not appear to be a matter of public record or of known private correspondence. So far as the records show, the matter was not only allowed to go by default, but so far escaped the memories or notice of the officials of a new administration that in the late '70s, over ten years afterwards, they themselves submitted to European nations a plan for a system of international fog signals—a system for which, they said, they had "experienced for a long time the necessity!"

So, indifferently, the American government, busied with the problems of reconstruction after the Civil War, failed to co-operate in the first of the internationalist movements of the '60s.

II. INTERNATIONAL RED CROSS

The second internationalist endeavor should have appealed more strongly to the American government, just finishing its military experiences of the Civil War; and it did for a time secure American consideration.

Upon the initiative of "some honored citizens of the Swiss Confederation," an international conference was held in Geneva in 1863 to plan improvement of "the sanitary service in armies in the field"—the beginnings of our modern International Red Cross.⁴ This first conference led to a second and more general one in 1864, to which the United States was invited to send, and did send, a delegate.⁵

The conference of 1864 drew up a sanitary or Red Cross treaty which was accepted by Great Britain, France, Spain, and Denmark, and by a number of the not yet unified German states—in fact, by "all

the principal powers" except Russia and Austria.⁶ To the first invitation to join the list of signers of this treaty the United States made no immediate reply, much to the embarrassment of its delegate and representative in Switzerland.⁷ In fact, so far as the records show, it made no definite response for over three years; and then, in reply to a renewed earnest invitation to sign, Secretary Seward made a new and doubtless startlingly unexpected application of the Monroe Doctrine to the situation:

"It has always been deemed at least a questionable policy, if not unwise," he informed the French minister, "to become a party to any instrument to which there are *many other parties*. Nothing but the most urgent necessity should lead to a departure from this rule. It is believed that the case....would not warrant such a course."⁸

So, brusquely, was finally set aside America's first opportunity to co-operate in an internationalist movement to which it gives the heartiest of support in these later days.

III. WORLD WEIGHTS, MEASUREMENTS, COINAGE

Much wider in its scope, and of greater possible import to the majority of the inhabitants of the western world, was the third of the great international movements of this period to which the American government gave its attention—the attempt to standardize the system of weights, measurements, and coinage of Europe and the Americas—possibly of the entire world.

In spite of the many wars which mark it, the decade of the 1860s was in certain ways strongly idealistic and international. "The tendency of the age," said the not at all emotional John Sherman, "is to break down all needless restrictions upon social and commercial intercourse."⁹ The movement in this direction appears to have started, or at least to have been revived, in the early '50s. A series of international expositions and international statistical congresses, beginning in 1851 to 1853, apparently reached a first climax in the joint international exposition and statistical congress at Paris in 1867.¹⁰ At the same time a more or less world wide monetary readjustment, due to the disturbing effects of the California and Australian gold discoveries of the '50s and of the Nevada silver discoveries of the '60s, produced a Prussian-German monetary unification in 1857,¹¹ and a Latin Monetary Union of France, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy in 1865, and led to the calling of an international monetary conference to meet jointly with the international statistical conference at this Paris exposition of 1867.¹²

Great hopes were held by the internationalists of the day as to the outcome and influence of this great joint exposition-conference-congress of 1867. Even Sherman expressed a "trust" that it might result in the entire world becoming able to "compute....by the same standard,....measure by the same yard or metre, and weigh by the same scale."¹³ Samuel Ruggles, chairman of the American delegation to the Paris exposition and conference, and practical man of

affairs of New York, allowed himself even more enthusiastic visions—a Pan-American “Christian concord” in the “unification of money”; “the grandeur of uniting the two hemispheres in one common civilization”; and, “ultimately,” the combining with Europe and America in “one common, world-embracing system,” of even “the populous nations of eastern Asia, with their four or five hundred millions”—“to remain united while modern civilization shall endure.”¹⁴

Alas for these high hopes! The monetary conference found its members able to agree “unanimously” on only one item: the recommendation to all nations of a “single standard” of monetary value, that standard to be “exclusively of gold.”¹⁵ Almost as unanimously, however, its members decided “against the creation of an entirely new system” of coinage for all of the nations, contenting themselves with advising instead an attempt by the various nations to bring about a “mutual co-ordination of existing systems”¹⁶—an “assimilation” of existing systems, rather than “unification” or “identity of coinage.”¹⁷

For the failure to realize their great ambitions the Americans held the British government almost wholly responsible. In the congresses of 1863 and 1867 its delegates were found always “zealously engaged in the great endeavor to unify the money of the world”;¹⁸ but when the time came for actual voting upon the subject of a common coinage, these delegates presented instructions from their government to vote negatively, their government maintaining that it had not been “incontestibly demonstrated” that the advantages of the new system justified British abandonment of the older one, “approved by experience, and rooted in the habits of the people.”

In spite of their disappointment, the friends of universal coinage, weights, and measurements set about the difficult task of working out plausible plans for the “assimilation” of the systems of the various nations. Their proposals as to new measures of weight and distance, particularly for the adoption of the metric or decimal system, received no really serious official consideration in the United States; but in the endeavor to attain a system of universal coinage the senate of the United States, under pressure from John Sherman, chairman of its finance committee, took a leading part, formulating bills for adoption by the American congress, and opening through the department of state a correspondence with foreign nations that lasted until 1872.¹⁹

Their efforts were in vain. With the exception of Great Britain, the nations of the old world showed themselves interested; but each was unwilling to make those modifications of its own system necessary for the attainment of a common or uniform one. Moreover, the leading newspapers of New York rose to the defense of the British pound sterling, denying the “propriety....practicability....and....importance” of the proposed “Paris system.”²⁰ The British government let it be understood that it was not willing even to consider the new proposals “while a double standard is maintained in France”; and Sherman

finally reluctantly admitted that both house and senate were “not disposed to accept the suggestions of the Paris conference without further communication with the British government.”²¹ Oddly enough, the only concrete American result of the entire effort towards an international system of coinage was that adoption of the gold standard, or demonetization of silver, that later became famous as the “crime of 1873.”

To his last days John Sherman held a grudge against the British government for the part it had thus taken in defeating the great plan for an international monetary system—a system whose benefit, to ourselves as well as to the world, he insisted, “no man can estimate.”²² “It was defeated,” he wrote twenty-five years later, “by the refusal of Great Britain to assent to the change of her pound sterling by....about one penny. But pride in its existing coins, so strong in that country, defeated the measure....Great Britain has steadily opposed all these enlightened measures, and thus far has been able to defeat them....”²³

“....and so the thing ended,” says Sherman; at any rate, so ended the most nearly successful of all of the numerous efforts to bring about a world-wide system of weights, measures, and coinage.

SUMMARY

Such is, very briefly, the story of the internationalism of the 1860s. Nationalism manifested itself aggressively in the unification of Germany and of Italy, and in the victory of the Union in the American Civil War. Internationalism manifested itself on even more numerous occasions, but less effectively. One after another, ambitious plans for an international marine code of signals, an international Red Cross agreement, and an international system of weights, measures, and coinage came to grief in their encounters with national inertia, interests, and prejudices. The Latin Monetary Union survived; the Red Cross movement was merely delayed; but grand ambitions for a world-wide uniformity of weights, measures, and coinage met with complete disappointment and are less visibly promising of realization today than in the buoyant days of the '60s. And for the defeat or delayed realization of these internationalist aspirations of the '60s the United States bore at least its fair share of responsibility.

¹ Messages and Documents of the American Department of State for 1866-1867, Part I, 244-245, 382-383.

² Same, 1867-1868, Part I, 201, 289-290.

³ Same, 292-293.

⁴ Same for 1864-1865, Part III, 227.

⁵ Same, 227, 229. The American minister at Berne (Geo. G. Fogg) served as our delegate (same, IV, 386).

⁶ Same for 1865-1866, Part III, 75, and 1866-1867, Part II, 184.

⁷ Same for 1865-1866, Part III, 211.

⁸ Same for 1868-1869, 456. Italics not in the original.

⁹ “Recollections” (N. Y., Werner, 1895), 348.

¹⁰ Report of Mr. Leone Leir to the conference of 1867 (Senate Exec. Doc. No. 5, 39C 2S, p. 19).

¹¹ Senate Exec. Doc. No. 5, 39C 2S, pp. 19, 30. Messages and Documents, 1867-1868, I, 296; Report No. 62 of Congressional Committees, 39C 1S, pp. 10-11.

²² Senate Exec. Doc. No. 5, 39C 2S, pp. 19-20. The official reports of these conferences are found in the *Procès Verbaux de la Conférence Monétaire Internationale* (Paris, 1867). Though not generally listed in the catalogs and indexes, English translations of the major contents of this official report may be found in the following places: Senate Exec. Doc. No. 5, 39C 2S, pp. 24-36 (serial number 1276); Messages and Documents Department of State, 1867-1868, Part I, pp. 306-380; House Exec. Doc. No. 266, 41st Cong. 1st Sess. (serial number 1426).

²³ Recollections, 348.

²⁴ Messages and Documents, 1867-1868, I, 363, 368, 372.

²⁵ Same, 360.

²⁶ Same, 1870-1871, 243.

²⁷ Same, 244.

²⁸ Same, 1867-1868, I, 374.

²⁹ Same, 1870-1871, 240-243, and 1871-1872, 872-876.

³⁰ Ruggles to Sherman, December 30, 1867 (Sherman, "Recollections," 348-349).

³¹ Messages and Documents, 1870-1871, 242, 243.

³² "Recollections," 349-350.

³³ "Recollections," 349-350.

Significant Contributions of Germany to World History

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What place, if any, has the history of Germany in either the general course in European or World history in the American secondary school? If it has a place, what aspects or phases of German civilization ought to be stressed? The purpose of this brief article is to suggest, in somewhat summary fashion, the answer to these two inextricably interwoven questions.

At the outset it should be noted that my answer rests on two assumptions, both of which I consider fundamental in the teaching of history and the other social sciences: (1) That biological inheritance, social and geographic environment, and cultural heritage are the basic factors which shape the life of every person and determine the civilization of his group; and (2) that insight and appreciation of the past, and a better understanding of the present through the study of the behavior of the human animal are the chief purposes of history. If, for each epoch or stratum of human history, we know the traits with which men are born, the influence of climate, topography and natural resources, and the customs, institutions, ideas, techniques and material apparatus inherited, the problem of ascertaining how men made a living, how they lived together and how they understood the world, will be far easier than otherwise. And, in last analysis, if we know how men in any period gained a livelihood, what associations—social, political, and religious—they formed, what their notion was of the world in which they lived, and their progress in both art and science, we ought to have a pretty clear understanding of our own society and its antecedents.

It requires no very great stretch of the imagination to realize that it is quite impossible to gain a well-rounded conception of contemporary civilization and its historical foundations without including certain aspects of German history. Even if history is "past politics" this would be true, and it becomes doubly so if history is conceived in terms of men making a living, living together and understanding the world. Germany has always been and still is a rich contributor to world history. Indeed, from the Middle Ages to the present she has, directly or indirectly, affected every phase of institutional life of the European and the Western World.

In the first place she has profoundly influenced the economic development of the world. From the twelfth century to almost the middle of the nineteenth, the territory from the North and Baltic Seas, and from the Rhine and Vistula was predominately agricultural. Industry and commerce, in sharp contrast to the present, were relatively unimportant. Even as late as 1871 no less than 63.9 per cent. of the total population of Germany was rural. This fact in itself is significant for the student of world history. Moreover, during the early part of this period of agrarian pre-eminence, the Germanies shared with Western Europe the rising trade that preceded overseas expansion. By means of the Hanseatic League, merchant and craft guilds, and capitalistic institutions such as the banking house of the Fuggers, they taught Europe better business methods by showing what could be accomplished in an economic way by co-operative effort.

The continued emphasis on agriculture, the slow disappearance of the guild system, devastating wars, lack of political unity, inadequate means of communication, deficient banking facilities, absence of a uniform medium of exchange, and innumerable tariff restrictions, greatly hampered the progress of German industry prior to 1850. With these facts the student of world history ought to be familiar, for they explain in large measure why such Western European countries as England, France and Belgium outdistanced Germany industrially prior to that date. Even more important, he should understand the nature of the factors which enabled Germany to overcome these handicaps and to become one of the greatest industrial powers on the face of the earth. Among the more important of these factors might be mentioned the formation of the Zollverein, the establishment of the empire, the acquisition of Alsace-Lorraine, ownership of remarkable rich natural resources, an industrial proletariat recruited in part from landless peasants, the application of the latest industrial methods, government aid and encouragement, especially in the form of protective tariff and education, and the accumulation of capital. The discipline gained from compulsory military service also proved advantageous to industry.

Perhaps the most significant economic contribution by Germany to world history has been its determination and persistent effort to expand commercially; in other words to win economic equality, if not absolute primacy among the nations of the world. Anyone who compares the statistics of German production from 1870 to the present time with those of other industrialized countries cannot help but be amazed at the advance Germany has made, particularly in the textile, coal, iron and steel, leather, paper, glass, brick, tile, pottery, and chemical industries. Part of her greatly increased output was, of course, disposed of in the home market, for her population increased constantly until in 1910 it numbered 64,925,993. Her surplus goods, however, had to be disposed of in foreign lands. New markets were developed in South America and in Southeastern Europe, and older ones enjoyed by Germany's competitors were tapped. Naturally this competition for markets was, and still is, a source of international enmity and strife. Today both England and the United States view with concern Germany's growing merchant marine. With a tonnage of nearly five and a half million tons in 1914, it fell to less than 700,000 tons in 1920, only to rise to over three million tons in 1925; in efficiency and economy it is at present probably superior to that of any other nation.

It was this desire for an economic place in the sun that caused Germany in the last decades of the nineteenth century to acquire a million square miles of territory and fourteen million subjects in Africa and Oceanica, and to secure a foothold in the Far East. Though these territories were not suitable for colonization, they were valuable for their mines, rubber, rare timber, and palm oil. Moreover, there were possibilities that they might produce great quantities of cotton, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, and other tropical products. Like the colonies of other nations, they afforded excellent opportunity for individuals in the fatherland to make very profitable investments in mines, rubber plantations, railways, and the like. The interest of the German Government in Morocco in 1911, for example, was largely because the Mannesmann Brothers were interested in Moroccan mines. Further detail on this point is unnecessary. Competition for markets; for territories, colonial, and otherwise, which will furnish the home manufacturer with the necessary raw materials and give the home capitalist a place for investment; the creation of armies and navies for the acquisition and protection of these markets and territories; the erection of tariff barriers; national power and prestige and national honor constitute the real stuff of international politics. No student of world history can have any very clear understanding of world politics during the last fifty years unless he knows what Germany has accomplished in an industrial way at home, and what her ambitions have been and still are in the realm of foreign trade and economic exploitation.

Lastly, Germany's technical contributions to the economic development of the world are very significant. While the Germans, like the Japanese, do not

hesitate to borrow processes and techniques from others, no European nation has been more productive in this respect than Germany. Indeed, a sizable volume could be written which would contain little more than a listing of German inventions and processes of the last half century. Germany's desire, if not her actual need, to turn out commodities of superior quality and more cheaply than her competitors, accounts in part for her technical advances, especially in the potash, machine, cutlery, leather, chemical, and electrotechnical industries. Before the World War no less than five thousand university-trained chemists were employed in the chemical laboratories of Germany. Mention should also be made of the cartel and the syndicate, for they represent Germany's chief contribution in the field of business organization.

While somewhat less tangible than the economic, Germany's contribution to what, for want of a better name, may be called the social aspects of world history, is nevertheless significant. First of all, in the long span of years from 800 to the present, Germans have settled or planted colonies in many parts of the world.¹ A glance at a racial map discloses dozens of German settlements in the Slavic-Magyar sections of Europe, and a somewhat lesser number in such countries as the Argentine, Brazil, and the United States. German settlements are to be found even in Asia and Africa. Irrespective of destination, these immigrants have taken with them German physical and mental characteristics, language, customs, traditions, and ways of doing things. Thus many communities outside of Germany have been stamped with the imprint of German civilization—an imprint which in several instances has been lasting. Certain rural sections of Pennsylvania are evidence of this fact.

The student of the American secondary school ought certainly to understand the effect of industrialization upon society. Probably no other country affords better material for this purpose than does Germany. Her astonishing growth in population, the tendency of this population to concentrate in urban districts, and the problems to which this concentration gave rise, are of first-rate importance. Likewise, the relative position of the various social classes should not be neglected. What of the German bourgeoisie? Has Germany a farm problem? What about the German labor movement? Has the rest of the world anything to learn from Germany about methods of handling industrial disputes? These and many similar questions will occur to the skilful teacher.

To Germany perhaps more than to any other country belongs the credit for initiating a definite program of social legislation. The first measure, an accident insurance bill, offered in the Reichstag in 1881, became law in 1884. A companion measure, a sickness insurance bill, became effective the same year. Other measures, including an old age and invalidity law, were subsequently enacted. Germany's example was soon copied by the other industrial countries of the world. To comprehend fully

the significance of this far-reaching legislation, the student should know something about the appearance of socialism in Germany and about the early co-operative schemes of Lassalle and the later developments under Liebknecht and Bebel. He should also fully understand what Bismarck's attitude was toward socialism and why he championed a program of social legislation.

The application of the co-operative principle to various economic undertakings represents another important social contribution by Germany to world history. German rural credit associations, local consumers' leagues, retail co-operatives, and the like, have been widely copied in other lands.

On the religious side Germany has played an important rôle. Along with Switzerland, Scandinavia, the Netherlands, England, and Scotland, the territories now within her boundaries were the scene of the Reformation. The Germans gave the world Lutheranism as well as many lesser sects. Luther, along with Zwingli and Calvin, formulated the principles of the great Protestant groups which broke away from the Medieval Church during the sixteenth century. No one can possibly understand why Luther revolted and why Lutheranism, in its inception at least, was aristocratic, socially conservative, and devotional, unless he has some comprehension of what the Germans were like in Luther's time. What was the social-economic status of the German people? Was political integration lacking, and, if so, did this prevent the building up of a strong centralized religious organization? In what way did the religious-political situation in Germany contribute to the Thirty Years' War? How did this devastating struggle affect New World settlement? These, and similar questions pertinent to world history, cannot be answered without knowledge of German conditions during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

Every American secondary school student ought to know that during the last two hundred years there has been a tendency throughout the civilized world toward equality of religious sects, freedom of conscience, and separation of Church and State. Few nations afford better illustrative material for the study of these items than does Germany. The *Kulturkampf* of the 1870's, for example, was nothing more or less than a hard-fought conflict between clerics and anti-clerics accentuated by German nationalism. To understand the *Kulturkampf* and the composition and policies of the Center Party to which it gave rise, requires careful study of the emergence of modern Germany, of Bismarck's nationalizing program, of the relation between Germany and Italy, of the attitude of the Papacy toward the Bismarck régime, and of the growing breach in Germany, as elsewhere, between the intellectual position of the Catholic Church and popular scientists and modernistic philosophers. Even today Germany is sharply divided over the question of whether church organizations—either Catholic or Protestant—should share with the State in the control of education. Moreover, industrialized Germany furnishes an excellent example of a nation

where preoccupation with the secular life of this world has pushed traditional religion farther and farther into the background, thus paving the way for new religious conceptions.

Germany's contribution to world history politically is a varied one. In the first place, during medieval times and throughout the greater part of the modern period she was the classic land of feudalism and particularism. No ruling house in Germany has ever succeeded in overcoming the seemingly inherent heterogeneity of the German race. The relation between Bavaria and the Reich today is striking evidence that this spirit of particularism is far from dead. The student of world history should keep this fact in mind, as it helps to explain why the unification of Germany was so long delayed. Germany was the first to invent and apply efficient administrative institutions on a national scale, but the prevalence of particularism and the insistence of German leaders, particularly the Hohenstaufens, in wasting untold blood and treasure in an effort to conquer and hold Italy, prevented Germany from early becoming, like France and England, a strong national monarchy.

More significant for the student of world history is the story of German unification. This should include the seventeenth century consolidation under the Hohenzollerns, the Thirty Years' War, the régime of Frederick the Great, the effects of the Napoleonic wars, the German confederation, the Zollverein, the domination of Metternich, the growth of liberalism and the abortive attempts at unification in 1848-50, the phenomenal growth of industrialization after 1850, the rôle of Bismarck, the conflict with Austria, the creation of the North German Confederation, and the victory over France in 1871. Once unified, Germany became one of the outstanding actors on the political as well as on the economic stage.

Militarism constitutes a third political contribution by Germany. From the great Elector and Frederick the Great, nineteenth century Germany inherited a tradition of autocratic, divine right government backed by a strong, disciplined soldiery. The failure of the Frankfurt Assembly of 1848 to unify Germany on a democratic basis, and the success of Bismarck in welding the country together politically by "iron and blood," naturally strengthened this tradition. Instead, therefore, of setting up a democratic régime in 1871, one undemocratic in character was established. Bismarck and his ardent nationalist supporters, believing that militarism was the one safe bulwark for preserving the new empire and safeguarding its interests abroad, provided for a most extensive military establishment. With the increase of German foreign trade and investments the military arm was supplemented with a navy which was second only to that of Great Britain. Moreover, confidence in its military and naval strength undoubtedly encouraged Germany, psychologically at least, to deal firmly and even boldly with its European neighbors during the years preceding the World War.

The student of world history should also understand the part Germany played in the events leading

up to the outbreak of the world conflagration in 1914. Naturally, this would include the diplomatic background of the war: the formation of the various alliances and agreements, the diplomatic conflicts, especially those concerned with Morocco and the Near East, and the race for armaments. This diplomatic background, the student should see, rested upon a growing spirit of nationalism intensified by propaganda, and upon a steady increase in national economic rivalry.

It seems to me that these events and the motives back of them, in so far as they are ascertainable, are vastly more important for an understanding of world history since 1870 than the events of the war itself. If the American secondary school student is made to realize the tragic fact that the people of each and every nation engaged in the World War were convinced that they were waging a war of self-defense and that their "cause" was, therefore, "righteous," that the allied nations believed that they were the innocent victims of a ruthless and brutal attack by the German military machine; that the people of the Central Powers believed that they were defending their homes against the unwarranted aggression of an iron ring of enemies; and that the populace of the United States believed that they were fighting to end all wars and to make the world "safe for democracy," he can afford to ignore many items about the war itself which are included in some of our texts on world history.

No one can understand the contemporary world scene unless he knows something about the more important consequences of the World War. And here, again, Germany cannot be omitted. What did the civilized world profit from the war? Did it remove the causes which brought it on? Has the fanatic spirit of nationalism been curbed; has economic rivalry disappeared; has militarism been crushed? Have the old methods of secret diplomacy and intrigue given way to more sane and rational methods of intercourse between nations? What nation, if any, benefited from the war? Did its awful consequences prove the tragic futility of all wars, for victor as well as for vanquished? These are the questions which should concern the student if he would know about present-day international society.

Finally, from a political viewpoint, Germany has contributed the ideal of administrative efficiency. Like militarism, this was a heritage from the days of the great Elector and Frederick the Great. Reference has already been made to the fact that the government of the newly created German empire in 1871 was undemocratic. Bismarck and the German conservatives did not believe in democracy. The populace, in their opinion, should not govern, but should be governed. Consequently, a highly centralized autocratic-bureaucratic régime was established. Permanent, thoroughly trained and strictly disciplined professional officials carried on the work of administration in the Reich, in the States, and in the municipalities. The people, as such, were denied practically all initiative in governmental affairs. Under this

régime Germany lived and prospered for forty-odd years, during which German administrative efficiency became a by-word with political scientists and government officials of other countries. With a proletariat dictatorship holding sway in Russia, with Fascism ruling Italy, with our own central government tending to become more and more bureaucratic, and with the persistent effort in every civilized country today to improve its governmental machinery, the American high school student ought to gain something worth while from an examination of the government, structure and administrative procedure of the German empire. Also he ought to have some acquaintance with the forces responsible for the creation of the present German Republic and with the nature of the constitution under which it is governed. In this connection he should endeavor to ascertain whether the old traditional bureaucratic government by technical experts still exists.

Undoubtedly Germany's most significant contributions to world history have been cultural and intellectual. In the past, unfortunately, these have been entirely omitted from secondary school history courses, or else have been given only slight attention. If there is a place for social, economic, religious, and political aspects of German history there certainly ought to be one for the more outstanding spiritual and intellectual phases. In fact, any general course which neglects Germany's contribution to science, philosophy, literature, music, painting, sculpture, and education is, in my opinion, lopsided and lacking in a sense of values.

On the scientific side, Germany gave the world Leibnitz, who, independently of Newton, invented calculus; Schleiden and Schwann, who established the cell theory in plants and animals; Pander and von Baer, who worked out the history of the mammalian embryo; Kant and Hegel, philosophers; von Humboldt and Helmholtz, Hertz and Einstein, physicists; and Bunsen and Kirchhoff, chemists. These are only a few of the hundreds of Germans who have contributed to science and scientific thought.

Long before she created a political empire Germany had founded an empire of music. Indeed, the civilized world today is more deeply indebted to Germany than to any other nation for its rich heritage of classical music. Bach (1685-1750), Handel (1685-1759), Gluck (1714-1787), Haydn (1732-1809), Mozart (1756-1791), Beethoven (1770-1827), Weber (1786-1826), Franz Schubert (1797-1828), Schumann (1810-1856), Mendelssohn (1809-1847), Wagner (1813-1883), and Brahms (1833-1897), not to mention less well-known figures from a galaxy of musical geniuses which have never been equaled. While Germany's contributions to the other fine arts are, perhaps, not as outstanding as those of some other countries, they should not be overlooked by the American high school student.

Germany's rich literary contribution is almost a hidden treasure, for most of our high schools boys and girls in so far as work in history is concerned. How many of our high school texts on world or

general European history, for example, even make mention of the popular German epic of medieval times—the *Nibelungenlied*? Often called the *Iliad* of the Germanic races, this poem admirably portrays certain ideals and characteristics of the Teutonic peoples. In like manner, Lessing, Herder, Schiller and Goethe, those literary giants whose spiritual and intellectual influence transcends the boundaries of Germany, find no place in the course in world history. The same comment may be made about Hegel, Schopenhauer, and Nietzsche. How many American high school students have ever heard of the German historians Ranke, Treitschke, and von Sybel, not to mention others?

Some may argue that the course in European or world history is so crowded that time does not permit

consideration of such intellectual aspects as I have mentioned. More and more I am convinced that our high school students should have greater acquaintance with the cultural and intellectual aspects of civilization. In the past these aspects have been sacrificed to what seem to me less important items. Scientific progress, art, music, literature, and man's philosophic notions about the world in which he lives, might well be given the space that is devoted to such non-essentials as military events and the like. If Napoleon and Bismarck deserve a place in the secondary school European or world history course, so do Beethoven, Goethe, and Helmholtz.

¹ For an excellent discussion of German expansion during the Medieval period, see James Westfall Thompson's *Feudal Germany*, Chaps. xiii, xvi, xvii.

A-D-U Tests and Examinations

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THE FIRST A-D-U THESIS-RESPONSE EXAMINATION

The first formal A-D-U examination was given by Professor A. Monroe Stowe on May 30, 1927, to students in education at Randolph-Macon Woman's College. This form of examination, according to its originator, was developed in response to the dissatisfaction of college students with the newer types of examination as well as with the conventional written examinations. Students complained that the tedious writing of the conventional type took too much time and energy and that, consequently, the ground that could be covered was too limited. Although they preferred the newer types of examinations to the conventional type, they criticized these forms of tests on the grounds that in a subject like education students ought to be permitted to explain or qualify some of their responses. The A-D-U form of examination was the result of Dr. Stowe's endeavor to devise a form of test which would combine desirable features of both old and new types of examinations.

The following method of procedure was utilized in the first A-D-U thesis-response examination. At the beginning of the examination the students were given duplicated copies of theses, blanks, and directions. Upon the duplicated form they were directed to record, not the truth or falsity of the theses, but their own Agreement or Disagreement with, or Uncertainty with respect to, the individual theses. This was done by encircling the proper initial letter of the word expressing their response. Hence the title, "A-D-U Thesis-Response," conferred upon this type of examination by the students and subsequently shortened by them to "A-D-U" tests and examinations.

After the students had recorded responses to all of the theses as directed and had indicated that fact, "key" responses were dictated by the examiner and were recorded on the blanks by the students, who then compared their own responses with those of the "key"

and recorded on the blank instances in which corresponding responses were unlike. They then recorded "final" or "revised" responses in all such instances and in cases of changes made in their initial responses before the "key" was dictated.

While students, in making their final responses, were free to change their minds and to record a response like that of the "key," they were warned that the "key" contained responses with which the examiner personally did not agree and that, consequently, the presence of these responses—known by the students as "trick" responses—would make it unwise to place implicit confidence in the reliability of the "key" responses.

After the students had recorded all of their final responses on the response record blank as directed, they attempted to defend their final responses by stating, in writing, the grounds upon which they based those responses.

In order to determine the nature of the reactions of the students who took the first formal A-D-U examination to this form of new test, the students in a class of one hundred and thirty-three college juniors and seniors were requested at the close of the examination to state, in writing, what type of final examination they preferred and to give reasons for their preferences. Of the one hundred and twenty-seven students who expressed preferences, with the understanding that what they wrote would not be studied until after scores had been computed and grades filed with the registrar, ninety-three favored the A-D-U thesis-response examination; fifteen, the true-false tests; eleven, the multiple-choice completion type; and eight, the conventional written examinations.

Typical of the character of the reactions of these students favoring A-D-U examinations after their experience with the first examination of that type are the following statements of seniors quoted by Dr. Stowe in his study, "Thesis-Response Teaching in College":¹

"The A-D-U type of examination provides a concise and easy way in which to record your thoughts. It is more interesting than the true-false, too, and far more so than the old written type. In the A-D-U examination you have a chance to defend your arguments. I like its brevity and conciseness.

"I prefer the A-D-U type. It eliminates the extreme physical fatigue which the old written type causes; it gives the student a chance to respond to more definite ideas; it challenges the mind of the student by making him think rather than 'ramble' or 'parrot' 1, 2, 3 answers; it enables the student, at least, to attempt to justify his reasons; and finally, such an examination, by its very nature, includes more of the course than can ordinarily be reviewed in an examination of the conventional type."

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN A-D-U EXAMINATION TECHNIQUE

The favorable attitude of the students toward the first A-D-U examination led Dr. Stowe to feel that it might be worth while to attempt to develop an A-D-U examination technique. The duplicated blank forms and manuals were, therefore, replaced with printed ones, copies of which may be obtained by the reader by writing our Department of Education. From experiments which we have carried on during the academic years 1927-29, a technique has been gradually evolved which has resulted in examinations toward which the attitudes of university as well as college students have generally been very favorable. Thus, when the members of a class of twenty graduate students in education in the 1928 Summer School of Duke University were asked to indicate whether or not they would have preferred any type other than the A-D-U examinations which had been used in the course, seventeen expressed a preference for the A-D-U type. Again, when the students in an education course at Randolph-Macon Woman's College were given the opportunity in January of this year to decide by secret ballot the type of final examination they were to have, the vote was: True-False, 1; Multiple Choice, 1; Completion, 0; Old Type of Written Examination, 0; and A-D-U, 63.

TECHNIQUE OF PREPARING AN A-D-U EXAMINATION: EXAMINATION THESES

As the object of an A-D-U test or examination is to test the extent to which ideas have been assimilated by students, the theses utilized should contain thoughts related to the ideas the assimilation of which is being tested. It is not merely a question of getting together a certain number of true-false statements, although the theses will contain some statements very evidently true to those familiar with the facts in the case, and others just as manifestly false. There may be statements about which even experts might disagree. There should be all kinds of interesting and thought-provoking theses; some that contain terms needing interpretation, and others that conceal hidden implications.

The number of theses to be included in a test or examination will have to depend upon the time

allowed, the number of responses which will have to be defended, and the difficulty of the test. In an hour, the average student can respond to about thirty theses and make the necessary defenses of his final responses when the "key" includes from three to five responses to be defended.

The following set of examination-theses based upon the discussions of the first six chapters of Hart's *Democracy in Education* is typical of the theses given in our department at Randolph-Macon Woman's College where three-quarters of an hour is the time at the disposal of the department for such a test:

TEST No. 1, "DEMOCRACY IN EDUCATION"

1. Generally speaking, primitive peoples make little effort to improve the character of their folkways because they lack the native intelligence to do so.
2. Folkways of primitive peoples control to a very great extent the expressions of the personal desires and impulses of the individuals composing the group.
3. Primitive man was insensitive to the mysteries about him.
4. Among primitive peoples education is incidental.
5. Among primitive peoples folkways are never influenced by individuals.
6. Primitive social groups are more or less voluntary organizations of individuals.
7. In large oriental "nations" individuals are generally free to do just about as they please.
8. Among oriental peoples religion permeates all phases of life.
9. The Hebrews were freed from oppressive folkways through the ideas contained in their sacred literature.
10. The achievements of ancient Athens were made possible through the activities of her industrious lower and middle class citizens.
11. Ancient Athens was without any definitely organized military and religious life.
12. The educational opportunities provided for the youth of ancient Athens were defective in that they did not include opportunities for becoming acquainted with the various social aspects of Athenian life.
13. In taking the Ephebic Oath the Athenian citizen cadet pledged himself to preserve the folkways of Athens unchanged.
14. In the experience of social groups there are at least three sources of crises.
15. When a social group has experienced a crisis, one of the most important of the problems faced by its leaders is, what are the new conditions, and what are the most effective ways of meeting them?
16. War was one of the factors responsible for the breaking up of Athenian folkways.
17. Traditionalists are generally ardent supporters of democracy.
18. The Athenian liberals tended to regard as "immoral" deviations from Athenian folkways.
19. In times of social crisis there is a tendency to regard people who vary from the folkways as selfish and superficial.

20. Successful social programs always insist on an immediate revolution in such ways of living everyday life as may be irrational and intellectually deadening.

TECHNIQUE OF PREPARING THE "KEY"

The next step in the preparation of a thesis-response examination after the theses have been formulated is the recording of the actual responses of the teacher. If the regular response record form is used (See Figure 1), the recording of the teacher's responses is not a difficult matter, as agreement responses can be indicated by encircling the appropriate "A's" in the First Response column of a blank and the disagreement responses by encircling the remaining "D's."

TEST No 1 in DEMOCRACY IN EDUCATION

DATE Oct. 10, 1928.

FIRST RESPONSE				"KEY"				FINAL RESPONSE					
1.	A	D	U	?	1.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
2.	A	D	U		2.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
3.	A	D	U	?	3.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
4.	A	D	U		4.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
5.	A	D	U	o	5.	X	D	U	?	X	A	D	U
6.	A	D	U		6.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
7.	A	D	U		7.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
8.	A	D	U		8.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
9.	A	D	U	o	9.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
10.	A	D	U		10.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
11.	A	D	U		11.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
12.	A	D	U	?	12.	A	D	U	?	X	A	D	U
13.	A	D	U	X	13.	A	D	U	?	X	A	D	U
14.	A	D	U	?	14.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
15.	A	D	U		15.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
16.	A	D	U		16.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
17.	A	D	U		17.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
18.	A	D	U		18.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
19.	A	D	U		19.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
20.	A	D	U	?	20.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
21.	A	D	U		21.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
22.	A	D	U		22.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	
23.	A	D	U		23.	A	D	U	?	A	D	U	

Figure 1. Copy of a student's record of responses to the examination-theses previously quoted. The following explanations of symbols used in this record will assist in its interpretation:

Encircled letters in sets of symbols indicate responses to theses with corresponding numbers.

Encircled letters in "First Response" column indicate initial responses of student.

Encircled letters in "KEY" column indicate responses designated in the directions contained in the "KEY" envelope.

Encircled letters in the "Final Response" column indicate the final responses of the student made only in cases of encircled interrogation points.

Encircled interrogation points indicate (a) that the "KEY" directions call for the defense of the

response, (b) that the response-record was corrected before the "KEY" envelope was opened, or (c) that the initial response is unlike either the corresponding "KEY" response or the corresponding final response.

An "X" through a circle and its encircled symbol indicates that the response represented by that encircled symbol is to be disregarded.

An important feature of the A-D-U examination is the arrangement of the situation so that every student will be compelled to defend responses to, at least, a limited number of theses. If there are theses the responses to which the teacher desires his students to defend, he can indicate the fact by encircling the appropriate question marks on his A-D-U form. A way of compelling students who agree with him to defend their responses to certain theses is to record in the "KEY" column, responses just the opposite to his own. These responses have been referred to as "trick" responses and ought not be made except in cases in which good students would ordinarily make the same response as the instructor. The "KEY" is completed by copying the responses recorded in the initial response column except in cases in which trick responses have been made or where question marks have been encircled by the teacher.

Originally the material contained in the teacher's copy of the "KEY" was dictated to the students at the appropriate time in the test. We have found it a better practice, however, to summarize this material in duplicated directions similar to the following, which are based upon data given in Figure 1:

"KEY" TO TEST No. 1, "DEMOCRACY IN EDUCATION"

Encircle the following "A's": 2, 4, 8, 9, 15, 16, 19.

Encircle the following "D's": 1, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17, 18.

Encircle the following interrogation points: 3, 14, 20.

TECHNIQUE OF CONDUCTING AN A-D-U EXAMINATION

The student comes to the test or examination with paper or examination book, a printed A-D-U response-record blank, and a manual of directions. The instructor or assistant distributes the examination-theses and the envelopes containing the "KEY" directions. As soon as the student has made his initial responses to all of the theses, he certifies the fact and pledges that he will make no more records in the column by signing his initials at the base of the "First Response" column. He then opens his envelope and copies the "KEY" responses in the "KEY" column, also encircling any question marks he may be directed to encircle. In every case in which his first response and the "KEY" response are not identical, or where changes were made in the "First Response" column records before the "KEY" envelope was opened, he encircles a question mark, and wherever he has encircled a question mark, he makes and records a response in the "Final Response" column. This response may be the same as the initial response or it may be revised in the light of further consideration. The student then endeavors on his

examination paper or in his examination book to defend, in writing, his final responses. At the close of the examination he files his response-record and response-defenses, and returns the theses and "KEY" directions.

TECHNIQUE OF GRADING A-D-U EXAMINATIONS

There are two important phases to grading an A-D-U examination paper and record. The first is technical and consists of reading and evaluating the defenses. It has been our practice either to allow or not allow a point for the defense of each response, and to indicate a failure to earn a point by a cross placed in the margin opposite the defense.

The second phase of grading A-D-U examinations is clerical, and consists in checking the initial responses to ascertain the responses which must be defended, in checking these with the defenses in order to discover if the student has failed either to make a defense or to earn a point by his defense, and in finding the score by subtracting the number of points missed from the total number of points which might have been made.

The checking of initial responses is expedited by the use of a "teacher's key." The numerals of the teacher's key are superimposed upon the numerals of the "First Response" column. The results of the checking are placed before the appropriate numerals of the "KEY" column. (See Figure 1.) Wherever there is a question mark in the teacher's key, or an encircled "U" in the "First Response" column, an interrogation point is placed before the corresponding numeral. Wherever a correction has been made in the initial responses, a "c" is placed in the appropriate place. Wherever the response of the teacher's key following "T O" is like that of the corresponding response in the "First Response" column an "o" is recorded, while when the two responses in such cases are unlike an "x" is placed in the appropriate place. All other instances in which the initial responses and the responses of the teacher's key are unlike are indicated by "o's" placed before the proper numerals. The check marks just described are then checked over against the corresponding interrogation points. If, in any case, the student has failed to encircle the interrogation point, it is encircled by the checker.

As there should be a satisfactory defense for every encircled question mark, the interrogation points are now checked against the corresponding defenses. Wherever the student has failed to make a defense or wherever a cross indicates that he has failed to make a satisfactory defense, a cross is placed after the appropriate question mark. (See Figure 1.) The score is found by subtracting the number of crosses from the total possible score. The individual's score is recorded over the "Final Response" column.

DIAGNOSTIC VALUES OF A-D-U EXAMINATION RECORDS

A-D-U examination response records, which have been scored, offer valuable data for diagnostic studies. By tallying, the range of the scores of the members of the class can be determined. Similarly, a record can be obtained of the number of students

failing either to respond to or to defend their responses satisfactorily in the case of each thesis. The frequency of these failures may serve as a valuable indication of the ideas which have not been assimilated by the students and which in the case of tests may need reteaching or restudy, and in the case of final examinations may need to be noted for more intelligent treatment the next time the course is offered.

THE A-D-U EXAMINATION TECHNIQUE IN PRACTICE

While to the reader the technique just described may seem very complicated, in practice it is actually comparatively simple. In fact, it is so simple that the instructor is needed only to formulate the examination-theses, to indicate his own responses, the trick responses, and the responses to be defended, and to read and evaluate the defenses. As for the remainder of the work, all of it can be done satisfactorily by an undergraduate student assistant.

A-D-U EXAMINATIONS IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

Social science teachers, who have become acquainted with the A-D-U examination technique, have been inclined to think that it has possibilities as a valuable teaching instrument in the teaching of the social sciences. However that may be, it is hoped that the reader, who has felt the need for a type of examination which will combine good features of the so-called objective tests and the conventional written examination, may find in the technique just described suggestions of value to him in the solution of his problem.

¹ Published in the *Bulletin of Randolph-Macon Woman's College*, Vol. XIII, No. 4, copies of which may be obtained by writing the College.

THE CIVICS OF SOCIETY

By

J. MADISON GATHANY
East Orange, (N. J.), High School

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Objective Tests the Best Discoverer of Pupil Attitudes

BY SAMUEL EVERETT, HORACE MANN SCHOOL FOR GIRLS, NEW YORK CITY

It is, perhaps, a significant fact that many European observers of our Educational system in the United States offer the criticism that we have in this country achieved an outstanding success in teaching unreasoning acceptance of National patriotism. This criticism is especially levelled at history and the social studies as they are taught in our primary and secondary schools. It is, for example, alleged that history is not history at all, but rather that it is merely a vehicle for the emphasizing of certain so-called American civic virtues. Among this class of European observers is Bertrand Russell, who, in his stimulating book, "Education and the Good Life," says of us, "In almost all European countries the individual is less subject to herd domination than in America; his inner freedom is greater even when his political freedom is less. In these respects, the American public schools do harm. The harm is essential to the teaching of an exclusive American patriotism. The harm...comes from regarding the pupils as means to an end, not as ends in themselves. The teacher should love his children better than his State or his Church, otherwise he is not an ideal teacher."

In reply to such an attack it is not the purpose of this article to explain that we in America have a peculiar problem, quite different in its nature from that of any European country, namely, the nationalization of the immigrant. Nor is it primarily my purpose to take sides in this question one way or the other. But rather it is, first, to indicate this criticism which is levelled particularly at our secondary schools; second, to discuss in theory the best way of meeting such criticism; and third, to tell in a few words the actual methods used in constructing a practical experiment, the results of which might aid in determining whether or not such criticism as this one of Mr. Bertrand Russell's is justified.

Within the last few years in this country, due to the influence of departments of psychology, and because of its ever developing techniques, we are coming to use objective quantitative methods and statistical analysis.

It is my belief that this newer technique, which we are rapidly developing, can best be used by social science and history people in answering such attacks as that made by Bertrand Russell and certain other of our European critics.

Are we teaching patriotism to the exclusion of truth? Do children believe that America is always and has always been right in her foreign and domestic relationships? Are we as smug and self-righteous as the speeches of certain of our National leaders, past and present, would lead us to believe? What are we teaching the present generation of school children,

intellectual honesty or blind and unintelligent patriotism?

Quantitative and objective tests of patriotic beliefs and ideals of school children should furnish the best answer to some of these questions, not an answer alone to foreign critics, but to ourselves, who are working to develop intellectual honesty in present-day school children.

One survey, and probably the best ever produced in this country, has just been published. It is "Middletown," by Mr. and Mrs. Lynd and their associates, who spent a year studying the habits, beliefs, and ways of living of what they believed to be a typical mid-western city. This book represents the comprehensive study of a whole city. One chapter on "The Things Children Learn" furnishes a quantitative study of patriotic belief among the high school children of this community. A questionnaire was filled out by 241 boys and 315 girls. There were possibilities of answering "True," "False" or "Uncertain" to the questions asked. Perhaps an indication of the social studies and history courses to which these pupils had been exposed is given by certain results obtained. To the statement, "The United States is unquestionably the best country in the world," 77 per cent. of the boys and 88 per cent. of the girls answered "True." To the question, "Every good citizen should act according to the following statement: 'My country—right or wrong,'" 47 per cent. of the boys and 56 per cent. of the girls answered "True." To a third statement relating to freedom of speech, "A citizen of the United States should be allowed to say anything he pleases, even to advocating violent revolution, if he does no violent act himself," 70 per cent. of the boys and 75 per cent. of the girls answered "Wrong." The answers given to certain other questions asked seemed to indicate that the war hysteria and war prejudice against Germany has somewhat abated.

It would seem as if we social science and history teachers can only discover what we are teaching, or at least what children are believing, regarding social problems, by increasingly making use of the kind of test used by the Lynds in their survey of the Middletown High Schools. All of us have somewhat vague ideas as to what children believe. We can really learn what they believe only by using objective testing methods.

I feel that many teachers who would like to construct objective attitude tests do not know quite how to go about it. As a possible aid to such people I offer the following story of my own experiment.

This study was originally begun in the Fall of 1926 at East High School, Rochester, N. Y., and the work was carried on in two Senior American history classes of the Senior High School.

In our first three months of working together these two sections and I had had some rather argumentative sessions. Certain students had, for example, found it hard to believe that the Puritans and Pilgrims, who had come from Europe because of persecution, should have themselves persecuted other sects after their arrival in the New World. Certain members of my two groups had been amazed to learn that the English Government was extremely liberal in the terms which it had granted the American Government at the termination of the Revolutionary War.

Becoming increasingly conscious of these intellectual and emotional disturbances, I decided to try to find out by a more quantitative measurement just what my pupils had brought to their study of American history.

One day I announced to these groups that I should very much like to have each individual give me some information. The classes had had, of course, no previous knowledge of the information desired. In order to guarantee complete freedom and sincerity, they were told that no one would be graded on the result, and that they need not even sign their names to their papers. I then asked them, in one, two, three order, and as briefly as possible, to note down any ideas or attitudes brought to their present history course which, in the three months' work just finished, had been either disproved or seriously questioned. My twenty-nine students handed in papers. All but eight had signed their names. All but three papers were considered significant. Fifteen minutes had been given for the test.

The problem now was to find the best use which could be made of these results. Miss Gibbons and I finally decided that from the statements thus obtained, and with some additions from current newspapers, magazines, and textbooks, a series of questions on the Colonial Period, the American Revolution, and the Constitutional Period be devised. These were to be given to my next classes as pre-tests. Their general purpose was to ascertain the critical attitude of students toward questions dealt with in these periods. The great value of the pre-test would be that it would acquaint the teacher with, at least, a part of the attitudinal background which each student brought to the subject. Thus the intelligent use of this knowledge might very well determine which groups of facts or ideas would need to be stressed and which would not.

Such a true-false test was constructed. The attempt was made to have the questions so worded that they would call forth an emotional response indicating attitude, or that they would test some ideas concerning which it was felt that most Americans are misinformed. The sort of problems which I had in mind were, for example, attitudes on anti-British feeling, excessive pride in American military achievement, a feeling that a true Democracy had been achieved with the landing of the Pilgrims, or a belief in the sacrosanct character of the United States Constitution. In this work the accepted definition of an attitude was that it is "a complex of ideas, ideals and feelings."

The questions chosen were reworked a number of times. They were submitted to five different people, and on the basis of new criticism again revised. The true-false test, as it was finally completed, comprised, roughly, twenty-five questions on each of the periods of American history under consideration.

These tests were given to senior and junior classes in American history, who were beginning the subject in January, 1927. Their use helped me tremendously in organizing my American history work relative to individual and group needs.

The tests were, however, still far from finished products. They did not test the strength of attitudes. No opportunity was given the pupils to indicate whether they did or did not understand the questions asked. Also it was felt that enough time was given for rationalization rather than an indication of immediate attitudinal reactions. In the fall of 1927 two or three of the members of the East High School Social Science Department set to work to try to remedy these defects.

Fortunately for us, there had been published in 1926 by Teachers College, Columbia University, a most remarkable book, "International Attitudes of High School Students," by Neumann. Anyone interested in high school attitude testing, or, indeed, attitude testing in any field, can hardly fail to be stimulated and helped by this book.

Using practically the same questions appearing on the three earlier tests, we borrowed a new technique given in this study. Instead of merely indicating "True," or "False," relative to statements, the opportunity was now allowed the pupil to indicate his feeling on a five-point scale (R + R ? W W —) which was placed before every statement on the test. The explanation of this scale, together with the new general directions to pupils taking the tests, can, perhaps, best be told by actually reprinting the new direction sheet. It is also hoped that a reprint of these directions may be useful to teachers constructing similar tests:

"AN INDICATOR OF ATTITUDE AND INTELLIGENT UNDERSTANDING OF EARLY AMERICAN HISTORY"

Instruction Sheet.

Many influences have led to your forming certain attitudes and ideas toward the past of our country. This indicator is to find out how you *feel* at present—not the way you think you *ought* to feel about the statements that are listed below. No report of what you say as an individual will be made to anyone. You are also absolutely safe in showing exactly the way you feel on each item, since you will not be penalized on your monthly mark by what you say. Try to be perfectly frank in your answers, as it will be interesting in our study to gradually note what changes in old attitudes may occur and what new attitudes are built up, as our work progresses.

General Directions:

1. Base your conclusions on *your feeling* about the statement as a whole, not on parts of a statement.
2. You will need to work rapidly; speed is essential. As soon as you have read a statement, write down your *first feeling*, whether you think it is the one you ought to have or not.
3. Below are listed various statements about early American history. Draw a circle around the letter or question mark which best indicates the way you *feel* about each statement as follows:

- R+ (R) ? W W- If you have a feeling in favor of the statement, draw a circle around R.
- (R+) R ? W W- If you have a *very strong* feeling in favor of the statement, draw a circle around R+.
- R+ R ? (W) W- If you have a feeling against the statement, draw a circle around W.
- R+ R ? W (W-) If you have a *very strong* feeling against the statement, draw a circle around W-.
- R+ R (?) W W- If you are quite uncertain as to knowledge or feeling, draw a circle around the ?.
4. Mark every item. Omit none. If you do not understand any item, simply put an X before the item.
5. Note the time at which you start.....

As can be seen by reading the directions, an attempt was made, first, to obtain a favorable "mind set" to the task, and second, to emphasize FEELING rather than rationalization. To meet the latter demand the speed element was introduced.

Those of us who had been working on this "Indicator of Attitudes in Early American History," now felt that in this last revision we had a test which met most of the shortcomings of earlier ones. Believing in the objective testing movement as we did, and especially in the need for objective testing of attitudes, we hoped that, perhaps, we had made some contribution of value to persons other than ourselves. In any case, we have been repaid by the joy of creating what, to us, was a new and valuable instrument. And that is very high pay, indeed.

A New Approach to the Study of the Constitution

BY H. ARNOLD BENNETT, STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE, BUFFALO, N. Y.

If we accept the President as our spokesman—and who could serve more logically in this capacity?—our outstanding problem today is not farm relief, not the tariff, not even international relations. It is respect for law. "Who is a good man?" wrote Horace. And he answered, "He who keeps the decrees of the Fathers, and the laws and ordinances." "The most malign of all these dangers [the dangers 'from which self-government must be safeguarded'], said President Hoover in his inaugural address, "is disregard and disobedience of law." Thus, from Horace to Hoover, and doubtless ages before Horace, the law-breaker has been a major concern of politically-organized society.

It is probably true that the violations of the Eighteenth Amendment have been the chief factor in focusing the attention of contemporary publicists and thoughtful people in general upon the question of obedience to law. But, as President Hoover was so careful to point out in his inaugural, the problem of compliance with law is far broader than the enforcement of the prohibition amendment and statutes enacted under it. At all events, we may expect that for some time to come the question of law enforcement will be among those of very first concern. The Presidential appointment of a National Law Enforcement Commission is only a single indication—albeit an outstanding evidence—that such will be the case. It goes without saying that the report of this Commission will be awaited with the keenest interest by all students of history and government. To attempt to predict the character of the Commission's recommendations would be, in general, futile. It may be said, however, without presumption, that in its report the Commission undoubtedly will place upon the schools no small share of responsibility for the molding and the maintaining of a public opinion sufficiently discriminating to bar the enactment of unwise

legislation, but sufficiently patriotic to insist upon the enforcement of such laws as its representative political agencies have enacted.

Now, law may mean a clause of the national Constitution, or it may mean a village ordinance. And between these two are many grades and degrees of law—acts of Congress, State constitutional provisions, State legislative statutes, etc.—not to mention "judge-made" law. Undoubtedly in the classroom problems should be presented and projects developed which pertain particularly to those laws which touch the child directly, such as traffic and fire ordinances. But assuredly there should be renewed attention to that law which stands at the other end of the scale—the Constitution of the United States. For while it may not be true that if an individual violates one law he will also on that account violate another, it would seem most illogical to expect whole-hearted support of local ordinances, for instance, as long as important provisions of the Federal Constitution itself are flouted. I refer particularly to the failure of Congress to reapportion representation on the basis of the 1920 census, the exclusion of the southern negro from the franchise, and the traffic in intoxicating liquors. Other examples of constitutional violations, however, could be given. Those immediately responsible for these abuses are for the most part governmental officials, but fundamentally, of course, the blame rests upon the people.

For two reasons, then, the time is ripe for a new approach to the Constitution in the schools: first, because there are violations of the Constitution—some of long, some of recent standing—the most promising hope for a correction of which rests with the public schools; secondly, because a greater understanding of the Constitution should promote that "legal-mindedness," which in its turn should foster a favorable attitude towards law in general.

For testing the feasibility of a given approach to the Constitution as taught in the schools there are certain criteria. First, the method must expound the Constitution as the basic element not only in our national government, but also in our State governments.¹ Secondly, the method must stress the essentially dynamic, living character of the Constitution. Thirdly, the method must appeal to the student, arousing his interest and developing his powers of reasoning in the field of politics.

It is believed that the plan to be suggested satisfies these criteria. In essence, the scheme is as follows: Select some section or clause of the original Constitution. Have the students learn the meaning and purpose of this provision. Then the students are to determine just what the given provision means today in the light of the development of that provision through the four main methods of constitutional growth. The four methods, familiar to every student of government, are formal amendment, statutory elaboration (through laws of Congress, and, to a less extent, laws of State Legislatures), judicial interpretation, and custom or usage. The remainder of this paper will be chiefly devoted to the setting forth of an example of the proposed method:

TOPIC: THE ELECTION OF THE PRESIDENT

1. *Original Constitutional provisions.*

The Constitution: Article II, Section 1, Clauses 2, 3 and 4.

Analysis of these provisions. Let the students state in their own words the essential points.

Pertinent questions:

Why did not the Constitution provide for the election of the President directly by the people?

Did the Constitution framers contemplate that the electoral college would exercise discretion in the choice of a President?

Why did not the Constitution provide that the electors be chosen by Congress?

In the apportionment of electors do the small States have an advantage over the large States? Explain.

(Note: Helpful references will be found at the close of the topic.)

2. *Effect of formal amendment of the Constitution upon the choice of a President.*

After they have consulted a standard American history, let the students explain how the election of 1800 revealed an inherent defect in the original method of electing a President.

Pertinent questions based upon Amendment XII:

How was the defect revealed by the election of 1800 corrected by Amendment XII?

Why could not the change accomplished by Amendment XII have been effected by a law of Congress?

3. *Effect of statutory elaboration of the Constitution upon the choice of a President:*

Let the students examine the Constitutional provisions pertaining to the choice of the President for the purpose of determining what details in the process are not fixed by the Constitution itself, but are left to Congress and the State Legislatures to determine. Under the skillful direction of the teacher the students will note—

That the Constitution does not fix the time for choosing the electors or the time when the electors shall cast their ballots.

That the Constitution does not state where and when the Senate and the House of Representatives shall meet in joint session for the purpose of counting the electoral votes.

That the Constitution does not state how the electors shall be chosen.

That the Constitution does not state whether the electors shall be paid for their services or even reimburse for their necessary expenses.

Pertinent questions:

Which of the above details are, by the Constitution, to be determined by Congress? Which by the State Legislatures?

Would it have been better if the Constitution itself had determined all these details?

(Note: Here is an opportunity for the teacher to stress one of the highly desirable underlying principles of a Constitution; namely, that it should provide the fundamentals of a government, but leave the details to be determined by the law-making bodies which it establishes or sanctions. In our modern State constitutions this rule has been frequently violated.)

Special exercise (suitable for an individual student report): The Presidential Election of 1876.

Let a student present the main facts of this election, answering, among others, the following questions:

Why was not a successor to President Grant finally chosen until the eve of inauguration day, 1877?

Why was such a delay fraught with danger to the nation?

How does the act of Congress of 1887 in respect to Presidential electors guard against a repetition of the contingency of the election of 1876? (Bibliographical note: This act may be found in *Documents and Readings in American Government*, edited by Mathews, J. M., and Berdahl, C. A.)

Special exercise (suitable for an individual student report): Presidential Succession.

The Constitution: Article II, Section 1, Clause 6.

Let the student point out—

How Congress by an act in 1792 provided for the contingency of the death of both President and Vice-President.

How and why the act of 1792 was superseded in 1886 by the Presidential succession act, which is in force today.

4. *Effect of judicial interpretation of the Constitution upon the choice of a President:*

Introductory note:

It is true that while judicial interpretation has played an outstanding part in the application of numerous provisions of the Constitution, as for example the interstate commerce and due process clauses, it has been a relatively minor factor in the development of the provisions dealing with the election of the President. In this connection, nevertheless, the case of *McPherson versus Blacker*, decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in October, 1892, is of interest and importance. This case begins on page 1 of Volume 146 of the United States Reports, to be found in any law library. Since the opinion in this case will probably not be readily accessible to the students as a whole, it is suggested that this phase of the topic be presented by the teacher, preferably through the medium of a simple abstract of the case. Such an abstract is suggested below. By means of the hektograph or other duplicating device the teacher may prepare a sufficient number of copies of the abstracts, such that each pupil may be provided with one. If time does not permit such preparation, this phase of the topic may be presented orally to the class by the teacher.

Suggested abstract for the case of *McPherson versus Blacker*:

You will remember, students, that when we were analyzing what the original Constitution had to say about the choice of a President, we noted

that the Constitution did not prescribe the method of choice of electors. That was left to the individual States to decide. At first, in most of the States, as a matter of fact, the electors were chosen by the Legislatures. But by 1832 the electors were chosen by the people in every one of the States except South Carolina, and in 1860 even that State adopted the popular method of selection.

In this matter of the choice of Presidential electors by the people one very important question arose. Should *all* the voters of a State choose *all* the electors allotted to that State; or should the State be divided into districts, the voters of each district being restricted to choosing just one elector? Now, this question probably will not seem very important to you, unless you keep in mind a practical example. Think of the last presidential election. Do you remember what happened, for example, in the State of New York? Mr. Hoover won out over Mr. Smith, didn't he, in that State? But out of a total of over four million votes cast for all the Presidential candidates in New York State, Mr. Smith received only about 100,000 fewer votes than Mr. Hoover. Yet Mr. Smith was credited with no *electoral* votes whatsoever, Mr. Hoover receiving all of New York's forty-five. This was because New York, like all the other States today, chooses its Presidential electors at large; that is, all the voters vote for all the electors. If New York chose its electors by districts, Mr. Smith would have received a substantial number of electoral votes, since all the counties included in the city of New York (which by the census of 1920 comprised over half the population of the State of New York) cast more votes for Mr. Smith than for Mr. Hoover. Suppose that, on the other hand, in the election of 1928 in New York State, Mr. Smith had received just one vote more than Mr. Hoover received. In that case every one of New York's forty-five electoral votes would have been credited to Mr. Smith, despite the fact that in most parts of up-State New York the vote would still have shown that Mr. Hoover was the favorite for the Presidency.

Now to take up our case. In 1891 the Legislature of Michigan enacted a law which stipulated that the Presidential electors of that State should be chosen by the people voting in districts, each district choosing one elector. But certain people in Michigan were opposed to this law, claiming it to be not in keeping with the Constitution of the United States. So suit was brought in the highest Michigan State court to test the validity of the statute. This court maintained that the law was constitutional, but the case was appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States for final settlement.

But, you students are about to ask, why should the act of the Michigan Legislature have been thought to be unconstitutional? I will explain that now. You notice that the Constitution says, "Each State shall appoint" the electors. Now, it was argued by those who were opposed to the district method of choosing electors that the term "State" really meant the people as a whole of the State, and that therefore every voter in Michigan was entitled to cast a ballot for each and every one of the electors allotted to that State. And so, the argument continued, the district system was unconstitutional, because under that plan each voter, instead of voting for all of the electors, was empowered to cast a ballot only for the elector or electors which represented his district. (As a matter of fact, by the Michigan law, in addition to

the Congressional districts, from each of which one elector was chosen, the entire State was divided into two other districts, from each of which an elector was chosen. Thus, each voter cast a ballot for two, but only two, electoral college candidates.)

But the decision of the Supreme Court, as presented by Chief Justice Fuller, did not uphold the contention of those who argued that the selection of Presidential electors by districts was unconstitutional. "The State," he said, "does not act by its people in their collective capacity, but through such political agencies as are duly constituted and established." The agency through which the State acted in the matter of the choice of Presidential electors was the Legislature of that State. The Legislature had the power to provide whatever method it felt best for the choice of electors. Moreover, explained the opinion, the district system for choosing Presidential electors had been used by the important States of Massachusetts and Virginia in the very first Presidential election, that of 1788. And from time to time in the several States thereafter various methods of choosing electors—the learned Judge listed at least half a dozen—had been employed by mandate of the respective Legislatures. The opinion also stated that James Madison, "Father of the Constitution," had written that the Constitutional framers themselves had contemplated the adoption by the States of the district method.

Hence, the Supreme Court has so interpreted the Constitution as to permit the use of the district system in the choice of Presidential electors, or any other method prescribed by a State Legislature. If the decision in this case had been otherwise, it would have been necessary to amend the Constitution to effect the desired change.

Questions and Exercises:

As a matter of fact, Michigan was the last State to use the district system for the choice of Presidential electors, and that State had abandoned this system before the election of 1896. Hence, no State today employs the district system.

Can you see why the general ticket system—election of all the electors of a State by all the voters—is preferred?

Yet Prof. P. Orman Ray, of Northwestern University, maintains that "the general ticket system is open to serious criticism." And he proceeds to point out five defects in the system. Concentrate upon this problem and see if you can suggest what some of these defects are. Then consult Dr. Ray's book, *Political Parties and Practical Politics*. Turn to Chapter VII. Can any of these arguments be substantially refuted? If not, do you think we should make an effort to get our State Legislature to adopt the district system for the choice of Presidential electors?

5. Effect of usage or custom—"unwritten Constitution"—upon the choice of a President:

Lord Bryce, in his *American Commonwealth*, explains the electoral college system as provided and contemplated by the Constitution as follows:

"This plan was expected to secure the choice by the best citizens of each State, in a tranquil and deliberate way, of the man whom they in their unfettered discretion should deem fittest to be chief magistrate of the Union. Being themselves chosen electors on account of their personal merits, they would be better qualified than the masses to select an able and honorable man for President."

But further along in Lord Bryce's account we find this clause:

"The Presidential electors have become a mere cog-wheel in the machine; a mere contrivance for giving effect to the decision of the people. Their personal qualifications are a matter of indifference. They have no discretion....In choosing them the people virtually choose the President, and thus the very thing which the men of 1787 sought to prevent has happened—the President is chosen by a popular vote."

Questions:

How has the great change implied in these two passages been effected? Has formal amendment of the Constitution been responsible for it? Statutory elaboration? Judicial interpretation? If none of these, there remains but one other method of constitutional growth which can explain this fundamental change, and that is development of the Constitution through custom or usage. Point out how this growth has been accentuated—

By the general development of political democracy?

By the development of political parties?

Topic: The Nomination of a President.

Explain the process in the nomination of a President, using the following subtopics as a guide: Difference between nomination and election.

The national nominating convention.

Composition.

Choice of delegates.

Indirectly by the party adherents.

Directly by the party adherents.

Rules.

Republican.

Democratic.

Essential purposes.

The pre-election campaign.

Work of the National Committee.

Why has it been unnecessary to formally amend the Constitution in order to provide the machinery for nomination?

Special topic (suitable for an individual student report): The Two-Term Tradition.

(Note: Elaboration of this topic is left to the teacher.)

6. Questions and exercises suggesting the possibility of the reform of certain practices involved in the choice of a President:

a. Account for the fact that the electoral college has never been abolished. How could its abolishment be effected? Is there anything to gain by doing away with it?

b. We learned that custom or usage was responsible for the development of our machinery for nominating a President. Some feel that it is time we formally amended the Constitution in order to bring about uniformity in the matter of the conduct of the Presidential primaries and in order to make possible national regulation of the great nominating conventions. Do you think we are ready for this step?

7. General references for the entire topic:

Bryce, James: *American Commonwealth* (1914), Vol. I, Ch. V.

Ogg, F. A., and Ray, P. O.: *Introduction to American Government* (1925), Ch. XV.

Munro, Wm. B.: *Government of the United States* (1925), Ch. VIII.

Beard, C. A.: *American Government and Politics* (1924), Ch. VIII.

Kimball, Everett: *United States Government* (1924), Ch. VII.

More elementary discussions:

Magruder, F. A.: *American Government* (1917), Ch. VIII.

Munro, Wm. B., and Ozanne, C. E.: *Social Civics* (1922), Ch. XV.

The topic as outlined above is adapted to classes in civics of senior high school grade. For use in connection with a graded school class, the development of the topic may be simplified, but the same general lines followed. If necessary, of course, even in the high school the treatment may be shortened by eliminating certain of the questions or assigning some of the questions as bases for individual student reports. But there should be no departure from the main principle underlying the scheme, namely, the study of the election of a President in the light of the four methods of constitutional growth. The four methods, however, need not follow in the order in which they appear in the above example. It should be remembered that the topic, "The Election of the President," is presented merely to illustrate the basic approach to the Constitution advocated in this paper.

How the study of the Constitution should function in the molding of the proper attitude towards law in general was discussed in the first part of this treatise. Before concluding it may be pointed out that the plan of approach to the Constitution recommended in this article is in keeping with a theory of law which is often stressed nowadays. This, for the want of a happier term, may be called the evolutionary theory, the essence of which is that law should change only as the people change. And, since the standards of the people change but slowly, law also should change but slowly. Perhaps to a limited extent in reform, law may point the way, but for the most part law must follow the gleam of the great forces of religion and education.

Just what has all this to do with the study of the Constitution, the reader may ask. Simply this: The student must understand that on the basis of the political institutions which we already have, much reform of a political nature can be effected simply through public opinion. Growth of the Constitution through usage or custom teaches us this. But it may be that some change in law will be necessary to accomplish a desired reform. Shall we, then, amend the Constitution? Not necessarily. Perhaps what we are seeking can be accomplished by an act of Congress. Let us, after due deliberation, try this method, knowing that if such a law should prove disappointing, repeal of it will be infinitely easier than repeal of a Constitutional amendment. But, the objection is raised, if we should secure the enactment of a law to effect a certain reform, perhaps the courts would hold it to be unconstitutional. If so, there would still be recourse to the State Legislatures for action by them. But might not the courts void even the State laws as not in keeping, for instance, with the "due process" clause? True, but our Supreme Court—as its record in respect to certain forms of labor and also commerce legislation, for example, illustrates—has endeavored to interpret the Constitution as a living thing. From time to time decisions may be rendered which appear to contradict the state-

ment just made, but it must be remembered that if we elect conservative Presidents, we must expect conservative Supreme Court justices. By and large, in its interpretation of the Constitution, the Supreme Court in the twentieth century has probably kept step with the majority of the American people.

Through usage, therefore, through laws of Congress and of the State Legislatures, through the functioning of the courts in their interpretation of our Constitution, the way may be so prepared for reform in a given direction that ultimately there may be formal amendment of our Constitution to carry that reform to its logical culmination. But formal amend-

ment (unless it be necessary to correct a technical defect in the Constitution, such as was the object of the Eleventh or Twelfth Amendments) should be a last, not a first, resort. Recognition of this principle will determine in large part the future esteem and respect accorded the Constitution, and, indirectly, the law in general. It is submitted that the method of approach to our supreme law advocated in this paper should serve in charting a steady course for the Constitution makers of tomorrow.

¹ Compare Beard, C. A.: *American Government and Politics* (1924), p. 102.

The Objectives of Civics Instruction

BY AROLD W. BROWN, PH.D., YPSILANTI, MICH.

The subject of civics has been introduced into the schools and has become a required subject in many of them because it affords certain possibilities in the way of very definite citizenship training. It may be said, then, that the purpose of civics instruction is to produce better citizens and contribute to the formation of civic character. Thus is the aim of civics generally stated; but the statement does not proceed far enough to assert the specific ways in which the subject should make its significant special contributions in the process of citizenship training. Therefore, it becomes necessary to search out the more specific aims or objectives that should determine the type of training conducive to the realization of the largest possible returns in citizenship values.

The question arises at this point as to what has been done in the field of civics instruction to set up definite objectives whose prime purpose is to serve as guides to instruction. A careful search reveals the fact that at present there seems to be but a small amount of material available on the subject. True it is that some attempts have been made to formulate suitable objectives, but it must be admitted that on the whole the lists are not entirely satisfactory, because of their lack of definiteness and specific character. There is a possibility, however, of arriving at a list of fairly satisfactory aims by bringing together the best of the available material on the subject, and out of it developing a group of objectives upon which writers are generally agreed.

SOURCES OF MATERIAL

A general search for material was conducted, which embraced a variety of sources, including the reports of associations and organizations interested in the study and promotion of education for citizenship, magazine articles contributed by specialists in government instruction, papers prepared by educators generally interested in improvement in civics instruction, books treating with methods in this special field, numerous reports of speeches delivered to groups of teachers and others, courses of study, and the introductions and prefaces of the most outstanding textbooks which have appeared in recent years.

Not all of these sources, to be sure, have yielded much of a definite nature; but it is certain that the material referred to represents the best work that has yet been attempted in the formulation of objectives in education for citizenship.

SELECTION OF MATERIAL

Many of the sources referred to were not directly concerned with the subject of objectives and, therefore, were not especially helpful in formulating a list of satisfactory goals. Most of them dealt with other problems, but such material as was considered relevant and valuable was selected and set aside, together with the references. In some cases, the material had a direct bearing on the subject and was organized as such, but even in these cases the writers were inclined to speak generally and in such vague terms that it was almost impossible to select paragraphs, sentences, or phrases that would assist greatly in making a list of objectives, well-defined and infinitely more valuable than those already available to teachers and others. Usually the material was taken from the articles by whole sentences, rather than by smaller units in order that the thought of the writer might not suffer by the interpretation sometimes imposed by paraphrasing. In some instances certain elaborations were made of various topic sentences which it seemed briefly expressed the viewpoint of the author, and as they did not particularly serve to offer further assistance in this task, a few words or phrases were used as introductory or appended at the end to assist in understanding and were formulated in such fashion as to add or detract nothing from the original thought of the author. Material which had no direct bearing on aims or purposes of civics was excluded from the consideration.

CLASSIFICATION OF MATERIAL

After the available material had been collected and brought together, it was necessary to originate a scheme or plan of classification such as would include the contributions of various writers. It was finally decided that most of the material fell in a general way under a few major heads. Under the head of "knowledge" a certain number of excerpts from

articles and other sources seemed to fall rather naturally; others under such heads as "sense of responsibility," "ideals," "habits," and "thinking." In some cases the material could well have been placed under one or another caption, and naturally it was disposed of according to the judgment of the classifier. On the whole, the matter of classification was not arbitrary, however, but rather favored the natural order. At the same time, for the sake of convenience, it seemed expedient to divide the material on the basis of class; i. e., according to the source of material. Four classes of contributors were generally evident: certain reports of committees, consisting of subject-matter specialists and educators, members of various associations; educators, faculty members of higher institutions, superintendents of schools, and others; subject-matter specialists, those contributors directly concerned with questions of subject-matter and engaged in imposing certain reasonable limits upon the subject; and certain textbook writers who have made a point of stating the aim and purposes of their text in the prefaces.

STATEMENT OF AIMS

After a careful study and consideration of the material grouped under the several heads, it was necessary to attempt a fair statement of particular aims or objectives that would include the various statements or contributions and still not border on independent thinking or prejudice of any sort. The fact that space will not permit the presentation of the vast amount of source material as it appears in the classification scheme has forced the writer to content himself with little more than the enumeration of the objectives, together with a brief explanatory treatment. Undoubtedly the following paragraphs will satisfy ordinary demands imposed by specialists in the field.

The first objective formulated, *To Develop a Practical Knowledge of the Governmental Agencies That Promote Public Welfare*, lays special emphasis on the knowledge aspect of education for citizenship. That a certain fund of knowledge is necessary for the young citizen to understand and to participate in the affairs of government is an indubitable fact. The young citizen cannot be expected to comprehend the business and meaning of government without having had some experience with it either directly or indirectly. It is necessary, then, in a course in civics that information of various sorts dealing with government, its organization and functions, be presented to him through the medium of the textbook and by the teacher in the classroom. The young citizen should be instructed in the fundamental principles which govern social relationships in order that he may arrive at a more complete understanding of the purpose, organization, and operation of the institution of government, which is in reality a scheme of community co-operation for the promotion of the best interests of the public. He should be led to see that the institution is not something which is mere fiction, but a real, living, developing, dynamic thing and that, in order for him to profit largely by its benefits, he

must possess reliable information and knowledge concerning it. He should be impressed with its scope and general field of service as well as with its community aspects. Certainly without a knowledge of government and what it attempts to do there can be little hope of the schools producing the best type of citizenship. This, then, is one of the essentials of citizenship training.

To Impress the Pupil with Civic Responsibilities and Opportunities for Public Service is the second objective that has been developed in this chapter. It is quite apparent that government cannot long function successfully or efficiently without the co-operation of those for whom it was organized and exists. Obligations come with the benefits which government secures for each and every citizen. It is of paramount importance, then, that the future citizen understand his relation to the great institution and what his obligations consist of with regard to the organization and the persons with whom he comes into contact in the ordinary affairs of life. He must be impressed with the fact that his selfish desires must give way when they conflict with the realization of certain social ideals conducive to the happiness and welfare of the group of which he is a member. He should understand that the possibilities of success of governmental operation depend upon his intelligent and active co-operation with those agencies which strive to secure the greatest social benefits. He should be instructed in the many opportunities for public service, whether they may be on the battlefield in time of war, at the election booths on election day, in the jury box, on the local school board, in the administrative department of the city, or in the ordinary occupations of life. The young citizen should be taught that with the privileges of citizenship come numerous opportunities to make a contribution by personal service, sometimes demanding sacrifice of individual interests, for the sake of making government productive of the greatest possible returns. For the above reasons this aim should claim recognition in citizenship training in the public schools.

The third objective which commands a place in the list of aims or purposes of civics instruction is, *To Promote Proper Civic Ideals and a Desire to Act in Conformance with them*. In all social relationships there is urgent need for the establishment and perpetuation of high standards of conduct. Certain it is, then, that ideals of citizenship which serve to point out ways of achieving the highest type of conduct in the dispatch of the affairs of citizenship should be assigned a place of emphasis in citizenship training. Ideals of service, co-operation, loyalty, honesty, justice, courage, honor, and so on through a long list, should be inculcated and promoted in the regular classes of civics instruction. Proper ideals of citizenship should have a tremendous effect in ameliorating conditions which present obstacles to the efficient operation of government. It must not be concluded, however, that the mere establishment or presentation of ideals relating to the highest standards of citizenship will necessarily eventuate in a practical outcome

or change in behavior. Opportunities must be provided young citizens for the exercise of these ideals which are to become powerful influences in determining one type of action rather than another less desirable in a civic situation. The presentation of these ideals should be accompanied by unceasing efforts on the part of the teacher to arouse in the young citizen an unquenchable desire to act in conformance with them. If this type of training is carried out carefully and thoroughly on every occasion that presents itself in the work of the classroom, there is every reason to believe that the operation of government may be greatly facilitated.

To Provide for the Formation of Desirable Civic Habits is the fourth special objective that is worthy of note. While ideals may be said to function primarily in cases in which the element of choice is present, there are certain civic situations which call forth a response identical to that demanded in a similar situation. If this be true, then it would appear that certain situations should elicit a response that has been more or less automatized. On this basis it is logical to conclude that certain desirable habits of acting, thinking, and feeling in civic situations should be established. Countless opportunities present themselves in the classes devoted to civics instruction which should be utilized in making permanent these desirable habits of response. The ideals promoted in connection with courses in government should be crystallized into enduring habits which are conducive to the best interests of government. Habits of earnest co-operation, lawful conduct, fair play, unselfish service, thoughtful consideration of others, sympathetic attention to the needs of those less fortunate, etc., should be encouraged, and every possible effort should be made for the exercise of these desirable habits of civic action. Many benefits of inestimable worth should come to the individual and to the group as a result of the formation and exercise of habits that are in keeping with those ideals which should govern to an increasingly large extent civic relationships and situations. Emphasis, then, should be afforded this objective, which provides for the formation of desirable civic habits.

The last special objective, *To Stimulate Inde-*

pendent Thinking and the Making of Impartial Judgments in Civic Affairs, calls for recognition in training for citizenship. Constantly the young citizen is confronted with situations in which he is obliged to select or choose a course of action. Wise choices, such as will bring happiness and satisfaction to the individual and to the community upon which he is dependent for social privileges and benefits, necessitate at the outset knowledge and information regarding government and civic affairs in general. With this material at hand, the pupil should be taught how to handle and manipulate it so that his thinking will be a valuable asset in assuming the duties and obligations of good citizenship. The fact should be emphasized that in matters of government the citizen should make his own judgments as far as possible on the basis of available facts and allow no prejudiced opinion in any way to influence his own good judgment. Matters of national, state, or local government should receive fair consideration, and judgment should not be made hastily, but rather as a result of detailed study of the situation, carefully weighing of each bit of argument, both pro and con, in order to arrive at an impartial and fair judgment of the case. There is much to be done in this particular field of education for citizenship. Questions relating to government and methods of reorganizing and adjusting the present organization should be presented in an intelligible fashion so that the pupils may profit largely by the sort of activity which they will be called upon to carry on in adult society as full-fledged American citizens. In this way the subject of government may be recognized as decidedly real and worthy of intensive study by prospective citizens.

It is quite impossible to say that one or another of these objectives is most important. In fact, it is very undesirable to attempt such a selection, as all of them are important and deserving of special emphasis. Knowledge alone would not eventuate in the type of citizenship that the public has a right to expect the schools to produce. So with the other aims stated. One depends upon the other and becomes important only as emphasis is temporarily shifted to it for the purpose of making special training effective and generally practical.

A Thanksgiving Day Play

BY THYRA CARTER, UNIVERSITY OF IOWA HIGH SCHOOL

In 1620 the Pilgrims landed upon "the rock-ribbed coast" of New England. When the first harvest was gathered in the following year they "determined to have a period of recreation, combined with thanksgiving for their many mercies." Therefore, Governor Bradford despatched four men to kill wild fowl for a feast for his followers. To the feast was invited the Indian chief Massasoit, who came with a goodly number of his people. For three days they were entertained and feasted. This was the first Thanksgiving Day.

In Boston, Thanksgiving was observed February 22, 1630, to celebrate the safe arrival of ships from England carrying new settlers and provisions. In 1631, thanks was officially given on the fourth of November.

During the seventeenth century the celebration of Thanksgiving Day did not become a fixed custom among the American colonists. After Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga, however, a proclamation of the Continental Congress recommended Thursday, December 18th, as a day to be observed by all the

States. Continuously each year until 1784 a similar recommendation was made by Congress, but not followed by all the States. The first Congress under the Constitution of 1789 having passed a resolution asking President Washington to set aside a day for prayer and thanksgiving, he complied with it in a proclamation prescribing Thursday, November 26th, for that purpose. It, however, did not become a fixed festival until Lincoln's time, when Thanksgiving Day was proclaimed in November, 1864, for the nation. Since that time it has been enjoined yearly by the President upon the people of the United States that they offer up thanks for the blessings of the year on the last Thursday of November.

The following playlet was an outgrowth of the work in an Eighth Grade American history class in the University of Iowa High School. It is based upon sources such as Bradford's *History of Plymouth Plantation* and books listed below:

Mary Caroline Crawford, *In the Days of the Pilgrim Fathers*. Boston, 1920.

William Bradford, *History of Plymouth Plantation*. Boston, 1900.

Grace Humphrey, *Stories of the World's Holidays*. Springfield, Mass., 1923.

William D. Love, *The Fast and Thanksgiving Days of New England*. Boston, 1925.

Joseph W. McSpadden, *The Book of Holidays*. New York, 1917.

Robert H. Schauffler, *Thanksgiving*. New York, 1907.

THE FIRST THANKSGIVING

Time: Autumn, 1621

Place: Plymouth—outdoors

Cast:

Priscilla Mullens	Mistress Billington
Mary Chilton	Mistress Hopkins
Master Allerton	Governor Bradford
Elizabeth Tilley	Master Winslow
Desire Minter	Massasoit
Mistress Brewster	John Alden
Mistress Winslow with	Capt. Miles Standish
her baby, Peregrine	
White, in her arms	

Scene I—Outdoors. Plants and branches of bushes to give effect of autumn. Small table and stools. Side of house with door visible at right.

Priscilla, sprinkling coarse pieces of cloth and rolling them up.

Enter Mary Chilton.

MARY: Oh, Priscilla, girl, what thinkest thou is toward now?

PRISCILLA: The governor is fain to marry thee, and the elder is ready to give his blessing. Is't so?

MARY: Thou foolish girl! It's not at me Master Bradford looks oftenest, not nigh as often as the captain looks at thee, nay but John Alden—

PRISCILLA: What is it? What's thy news? Speak quick or I'll sprinkle thee rather than the linen! (Raises dipper above her head as if to sprinkle Mary, who, shrieking and laughing, darts back and crouches behind an alder bush.) Enter Master Allerton.

ALLERTON: Maids! Maids! Whence this unseemly

mirth! Know ye not that the laughter of fools is like the crackling of thorns under the pot, a sure sign of the fire they are hastening to? The devil goeth about like a roaring lion.

PRISCILLA (in undertone to Mary): Sometimes methinks he seemeth more like a fool. (To Mr. Allerton.) We are beholden to you for the admonition, Master Allerton, and it must be a marvelous comfort to you that Mary and Remember weep so much oftener than they laugh.

ALLERTON: I would that I had the training of thee for a while. Mayhap thou wouldst find cause for weeping. (Moves toward exit.)

PRISCILLA: Nay, I'm sure on't. The very thought well-nigh makes me weep now. (Exit Master Allerton. Both girls laugh.)

ELIZABETH TILLEY (from doorstep): Priscilla! Mary! Mistress Brewster would have you in to see about noon-meat.

PRISCILLA (to Mary): But thy news, pappet, quick! (Gathers up clothes and starts for door.)

MARY: Why the governor hath resolved upon a day, or rather a week, of holiday and of thanksgiving for the mercies God has showed us. Think of it, Pris! A whole week of feasting and holiday!

PRISCILLA: Hm! It sounds well enow, but who is to make ready for this feasting?

MARY: Why—all of us—and chiefly you, none can season a delicate dish or—

PRISCILLA: Ay, ay, I know that song full well; but dost really think, Mary, that five women and a few young girls can prepare a Thanksgiving dinner and still have a very great holiday? It would take a great deal more and a good deal harder cooking than our wont.

MARY: But 'twill be doing our part to make a holiday for the others.

PRISCILLA: Now, then, if thou'rt not at thy old tricks of shaming my selfish forwardness! (Enter Mistress Brewster, Mistress Winslow with baby, Mistress Billington, Dame Hopkins, and Desire Minter.)

MISTRESS BILLINGTON: The governor hath already ordered my man, with Dotey and Saule, and Latham, to go afield tomorrow with their guns, and to spend two days in gathering game.

MISTRESS WINSLOW: And it was determined to invite King Massasoit and his train of ninety Indians to the feast.

DAME HOPKINS: Methinks another party should go to the beach to dig clams, for though not so toothsome as venison and birds 'tis a prey more surely to be come by.

DESIRE MINTER: And, Priscilla, we shall look to thee for marchpanes and manchets and plum porridge and passets and all manner of tasty eats, such as only thou canst make.

PRISCILLA: All that I can do I will do blithely and steadfastly.

MISTRESS BREWSTER: This same afternoon Squanto is to be dispatched to Namasket, to send from

thence a runner to Massasoit inviting him, with his brother and a fitting escort, to the feast of Thanksgiving now fixed for next Thursday.

MISTRESS WINSLOW: But I fear our men cannot dine today on the promise of the coming feast.

ELIZABETH TILLEY: Well thought of. Come, maids, to work, to work.

Exit. Some going one way and some another.

Curtain

Scene II—Outdoors. Corner of table visible with food and dishes upon it. Women going to and fro in act of clearing it. Indians squatting on ground. Men on benches and children in background.

GOV. BRADFORD: It has been a great pleasure to have our red brothers to our feast of Thanksgiving and we welcome them into our homes. They assure us the deer are in the forest and the wild fowl are plentiful. In the little time we have been here, we have built seven dwelling houses, and four for the use of the plantation, and have made preparations for several others.

WINSLOW: We set the last spring some 20 acres of Indian corn and sowed 6 acres of barley and peas, according to the manner of the Indians, who planted a herring with each seed. Our corn did prove well; and God be praised, we have a good increase of Indian corn, and our barley is indifferent good, but our peas were not worth the gathering, for they were planted too late and the sun parched them in the blossom.

GOV. BRADFORD: Let us be grateful! Our abundant harvest of corn is well stored and we are far from want. The red men are our friends and brothers. Truly, we have much to be thankful for.

MASSASOIT: Long ago the Great Mystery caused the land to be, and made the Indians to live in this land. Once, only Indians lived on this land. Then came strangers from across the Great Waters. No land had they; we gave them of our land. No food had they; we gave them of our corn. The things that make their riches all come from my land, the land the Great Mystery

gave unto the Indian. And when I think upon this, I know that it is right, even thus. In the heart of the Great Mystery it was meant that strangers—visitors—my friends from across the Great Waters—should come to my land; that I should bid them welcome; that all men should sit down with us and eat together of corn. Where once were only Indians, are now white men also. That this should come to pass was in the heart of the Great Mystery. It is right thus, and everywhere there shall be peace.

GOV. BRADFORD: 'Tis meet that we close our festivities by affixing our names to a compact that shall forever bind us together as brothers.

MASSASOIT: My people are anxious for this to come to pass. Samoset and Squanto have told us of the goodness of our white brothers.

GOV. BRADFORD: John, wilt thou bring forth the paper which is drawn up so that we may seal our agreement?

(John exits—Returns in brief time.)

GOV. BRADFORD: God hath indeed granted us more favor than we could have wished for.

(John presents the paper to the Governor, who looks at it, then signs his name.)

Signed.....

Signed.....

(Affix signatures)

MASSASOIT: Tomorrow we must depart from our white brothers and return to our villages—for it has been many days since we left.

GOV. BRADFORD: We extend our best wishes to our brothers and hope ere long they will return.

MASSASOIT: We will return again and we will watch over our white brothers.

CAPTAIN STANDISH (presenting the Indians with gifts): To express our best regards to our friends—we give to them these few gifts.

GOV. BRADFORD: Let us lift our voices in praise to our Father, ere we again resume our toil, after this week of feasting.

(All join in song—"Old Hundred"—etc.)

Curtain

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Willis L. Uhl, ed., *The Supervision of Secondary Subjects* (D. Appleton & Co., 1929), contains a chapter on "The Supervision of the Social Studies," by Howard Copeland Hill. Six major aims in the teaching of the social studies are presented, followed by a discussion of the selection and organization of courses of study in terms of sequence of courses and content of courses with titles of units for different types of courses. Three methods of teaching—the daily assignment method, individual instruction, and the mastery technique—are described with concrete illustrative materials. Under difficulties in teaching the social studies, the author considers the question in relation to teacher activity in the classroom, discrimination and proportion in the selection and organization of content and in the management of classroom activities, and controversial questions in the social studies. There is a dis-

cussion of tests and testing with illustrative materials. An annotated bibliography is appended.

In *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies* (Public School Pub. Co., 1929. 127 pp.), A. S. Barr has assembled considerable data on a threefold problem: (1) in order to test the assumption that classroom supervision can be made reliable and objective through the training of supervisors in the observation, description, and analysis of specific teacher and pupil activities, a detailed study was made of the teaching performance of good and poor teachers of the social studies; (2) an investigation of the characteristic differences of good and poor teachers of the social studies in secondary schools; and (3), an inquiry into the more general aspects of causes of success and failure

in teaching. The procedure used was the method of double agreement, in order by comparisons of the activities of good teachers to discover elements common to good teaching, to determine elements common to poor teaching by comparisons of the work of poor teachers, and to discover by comparison ways in which good and poor teachers differ. The case method, a variety of schedules and record forms, and different types of analysis blanks were used in the collection of quantitative and qualitative data.

Forty-seven good and the same number of poor teachers of the social studies were the subjects of the investigation. As a check on his data, as well as to present certain additional lines of evidence, the author presents: (1) a questionnaire study of the opinions of 104 experts concerning the value of certain classroom activities in the teaching of the social studies; (2) an analysis of the pedagogical literature to discover the teacher and pupil activities mentioned; and (3) an analysis of magazine articles on methods in history to discover trends in the teaching of the subject.

Data are presented in forty-two tables, with explanations and interpretations. Certain conclusions are set forth, and problems for further investigation are enumerated. Comparisons with earlier studies, according to the author, seem to indicate little improvement in the large amount of teacher-talking, the brevity of pupil responses, and the like. The author finally lists eighteen minimum essentials of teaching success. There is a bibliography. Lack of space prohibits an attempt to summarize the more important findings.

M. J. Van Wageningen, in *Comparative Pupil Achievement in Rural, Town, and City Schools* (University of Minnesota Press, 1929), includes data on American history and geography for Grades VII and VIII. Data on the range of information and ability to deal with problems for both history and geography are presented in twenty tables, and include mental ages, mid-scores on the Van Wageningen American History Scales and on the Posey-Van Wageningen Geography Scales for pupils in all types of schools. In the acquisition of abilities in American history, the following factors play significant rôles: intelligence, the length of the school year, the form of school or class organization, the distribution of emphasis, and the sex of pupils. There is a difference of more than a third of the year in the extent to which the small city schools surpass the large city school in the thought phase of American history; this is exactly the opposite of the general opinion that large city schools place greater emphasis on the thought phase of instruction. Boys show a marked superiority to girls in both range of information and ability to deal with problems.

Ellen L. Osgood contributes "The Social Studies in the Commercial Curriculum" in Harry D. Kitson, ed., *Commercial Education in Secondary Schools* (Ginn & Co., 1929). The author states the general opinion that the value of the social studies in the commercial curriculum has not been adequately recognized, and cites varying requirements, both general and special, in courses in the social studies. In New York City every graduate, regardless of his course, must have three full years of social studies, five periods per week. In one commercial high school in another city four years of social studies are required.

The author proposes three full years of social studies for commercial pupils, and suggests the following program: an irreducible minimum program of Civics (emphasis upon functions, rights, and responsibilities), World history, American history; and an additional program, including a short course in industrial history (if the time schedule permits), and elective courses in social problems and vocational civics. The author maintains that the content of the courses for commercial pupils should be the same as the content for all pupils, because specialized content is impracticable in both large unspecialized and small high schools, and because there is no good reason why the con-

tent should be specialized for commercial pupils. A brief description and discussion of desirable content for each course is followed by the evaluation of a course of study and methods for presenting materials to pupils.

E. I. F. Williams, in "A Course in the Professional Treatment of Subject-Matter in History," in the September number of *Educational Administration and Supervision*, reports the main features of a course which he offered during a summer session. The type of organization, according to the writer, includes the following elements:

"1. 'Professionalized subject-matter courses' present subject-matter similar in nature to the course which the teacher will teach, but amplified and more fully treated so as to provide the 'extra margin of relevant knowledge' needed by the teacher, and at the same time furnish a complete review of the elementary course.

"2. They include special methods, not as a separate course, but associated with, and interwoven with, the subject-matter of the course.

"3. They should treat outlook aspects of teaching such as are developed by a discussion of the history and significance of the subject, educational aims, educational values, and educational outcomes."

The length of the course was six weeks, the period studied was Medieval History—subdivided into fifteen units, and a list of materials was assembled, including a high school textbook, a college textbook, collateral subject-matter materials, a textbook on methods, collateral readings on methods and principles of education, and concrete illustrative materials. The outline of a unit, an outline of special material on method, and numerous comments of teachers concerning the course are included. The writer summarizes eight "psychological advantages" of the professionalized subject-matter course in history, and mentions four gains which accrue to the instructor who offers the course.

Frederick J. Gould's "Toward World Unity Through History as Presented to Ages Up to 14 or 15," delivered to the Third Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, is found in September 6th issue of *The Scottish Educational Journal*. The writer would banish dating by dynasties and presidential periods, and almost banish dating by years. The suggestion is made that the nation's history be associated with world history, and that world history be divided into three "great ages":

"(1) EARLY, the story of Primitive Man—of Asia, Egypt, Greece, Rome, to about 400 Christian Era;

"(2) CATHOLIC FEUDAL, to about 1300—the story of baronage, serfage, Church, Islam, Crusades, beginnings of nationalities, parliaments, universities;

"(3) MODERN EXPANSION of nationalities, democracy, commerce, colonization, science, and knowledge of the globe; and the dual attack on poverty and monopolist finance."

In each of these three ages the teacher should reveal the normative work of man, more civilized or less civilized, in his many activities, particularly in industry, the "harmonious energizing" of man in the fine arts, the normative energy of man in science, and the normative expression of human nature in social life and manners.

The writer would avoid a "colossal" memory of facts, but he would create the historical sense through developing a feeling of joy in membership in a world community based on co-operation, beauty, and unity. The teaching of history should be broad, liberal, and inspiring. "Let dull history teaching go to the guillotine!"

The student of economic history who is interested in business fluctuations and more especially in their causes will find Alvin Harvey Hansen's *Business-Cycle Theory: Its Development and Present Status* (Ginn and Company, Boston, 1927. x, 218 pp.) thot-provoking. In rather succinct fashion Professor Hansen discusses and synthesizes the views of those writers who, in his opinion, have made important contributions to the theory of the business cycle.

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, Ph.D.

The *Fortnightly Review* for September contains a most careful account of the method of "Financing the Soviet Russia," by Alzada Comstock. In the first place, she reminds her readers that Russia is no longer communistic; communism there has been replaced by government ownership, but this is far less obtrusive than it was in the beginning. Now, about the only time the average man is aware of the presence of the government is when there is a question of selling price; he learns then that what he receives for his produce is regulated by a power he cannot control. The rich bourgeoisie, earliest source of State revenue, is now supplanted by the prosperous peasant class, which the Government sees as a new bourgeoisie against which war is to be waged. This struggle is rather more serious than was the earlier, as these wealthy farmers know that when they take their revenge the food supply will be cut down. It costs far less to run the Soviet Government than it does to run either the American or the British, due to the fact that there are large areas of that vast country which are almost out of reach of the governmental arm. State officials serve the urban population and in Russia that means less than 15 per cent. of the total. Then, too, almost all of Russia's large, economic enterprises are run independently of the budget. The transportation is the only exception to this. As most of these enterprises are almost self-supporting, they are not a source of expense. They are, as a matter of fact, operated by companies or trusts formed under Government supervision and responsible to the Government, but they do not cost the people anything. Indeed, they are expected to show an annually increasing profit.

In the September issue of *School Review*, A. K. Loomis reports an analysis of the units completed in Grades IX-XII by 2,904 graduates of the Denver high schools in the classes of 1926 and 1927. Certain parts of the data summarized in eight tables are of interest to teachers of the social studies. The most frequent combination of subjects consisted of English, foreign language, social science, mathematics, and science, and was completed by 31 per cent. of the graduates. A combination of the foregoing subjects plus commerce was the next most frequent combination, and was completed by 6 per cent. of the graduates. The median number of units completed in social science was 2.6, while the median number of units in subjects which exceeded social science includes: English, 3.8; foreign language, 2.8; mathematics, 2.7. Two or more units of social science were completed by 2,541, or 87.5 per cent. of the graduates; this number was exceeded only by English, in which all graduates completed two or more units. Three or more units in social science were completed by 21.0 per cent. of the graduates; this percentage was exceeded by the following subjects in which three or more units were completed: English, 100.0 per cent.; foreign language, 41.6 per cent.; mathematics, 38.4 per cent.; science, 25.2 per cent. The mean number of units in social science completed by the Denver graduates is 2.2 (12.8 per cent. of the total number of units), as compared with 3.1 (16.5 per cent.) for New York City graduates.

A new departure in the organization of instructional material in the social studies is reported in Marietta Johnson's School of Organic Education at Fairhope, Ala. The principal features of the plan are outlined by Willard H. Edwards, in "The Social Sciences in the High School," in the March 15th issue of *The Survey*. The freshman year is devoted to covering political (world) history in one year. The next year is spent in an examination of the history of economic life, scientific discoveries and inventions, and commercial geography, with the struggle for trade and raw materials. In the junior year the pupils

study the history of social life and institutions, while the seniors study current social history.

No attempt is made to differentiate between the different social studies. The pupils read much in the current literature and popularly written articles are widely used. The classroom procedure is informal, with talks, papers, and discussions featured. There is no outside required work, and the pupils and the schools are free from all the conventional school paraphernalia of marking, grading, punishing, and the whole series of "rewards." No attempt is made to indoctrinate and inculcate the traditional and current teachings of cults which are now so prevalent. Results emerging from the experiment include: "more knowledge of common history elements; greater synthesis and historical orientation; better economic preparation for individual and world problems; continued growth through history; increased socialization."

G. Falco's "Storia Cassinese," from the eighth to the eleventh centuries, appears in the July *Rivista Storica Italiana*. Of especial interest are his comments on the attitude of Monte Cassino to slavery. He finds that in the donations to the monastery the servants figured largely, both male and female. Usually they came in families and for the most part they were agricultural laborers. There is one mention of a fisherman and another time five clerics, destined to serve in a private chapel, are given the monastery. The monastery did not emancipate its slaves, as it did not approve of the alienation of property in any form. At first sight it might appear that such an attitude tended to prevent the elevation of the servile class, yet as a matter of fact it did contribute directly and indirectly to the spread of the idea of emancipation by its humane treatment of those in its charge. Often the donor provided for emancipation, which led to a state of semi-liberty. Personally free, the servants were held to determine the revenues of labor, with or without animals. Sometimes these were free, but had to give a certain number of days of labor a month either in the place where they lived or at the monastery.

Alice Fernand Halphen gives a most interesting picture of a Jewish Grande Dame of the Renaissance, Dona Gracia Mendes, in the *Revue de Paris* for September 1st. Portuguese by birth, she spent her early life in Antwerp, where she held court. In 1547 she went to Venice, but because of persecutions was forced to flee two years later. Refuge was offered her at Ferrara, then under the rule of Duke Ercole II, husband of Renata of France, and known everywhere as the protector of religious exiles. Here there were already a great number of Jews who were able to worship without fear of molestation. For some reason Dona Gracia was discontented, and moved on to Constantinople, where she reigned supreme among her own people. In the palace of the Belvedere, where she passed the remainder of her life, she held a most luxurious court. She founded printing presses, schools, houses of prayer, and patronized letters and art. Some of the temples she established are still in existence.

Alice O'Reardon's "Life on the Hoof" in the October *Harper's* is a delightful account of some unusual experiences in the Bolivian Andes, certainly a valuable contribution to social history. J. B. S. Haldane has an article on "Scientific Calvinism" in the same issue, in which he makes some interesting comparisons with religious Calvinism.

A most valuable contribution to the mind of the ancient Israelites is to be found in W. A. Irwin's "Truth in Ancient Israel" (*The Journal of Religion* for July).

"No nation is more anxious onlooker than Japan now during the Russo-Chinese dispute. Like Russia, Japan also has railways and other enterprises to guard in Manchuria. Once China is permitted to seize by force the Russian railway in the north, will she not be heartened to try the same *coup* on Japanese railways in the south? Yet Japan is equally loth to see Soviet Russia wax too powerful in Manchurian sphere of influence; she does not want another situation created which will force her to the arena of battle. Japan feels constrained to take every precaution necessary to forestall such Russian ascendancy as may once again menace her national enterprises and welfare. She cannot and perhaps never will see her way clear to give up possessions in Manchuria, to which step she has been pushed by force of circumstance, and to forfeit all the vast economic enterprises she has launched there. For due to overpopulation and lack of raw materials, she must by all means have unobstructed access to the resources of Manchuria," so speaks K. K. Kawakami in the September *Nineteenth Century and After*.

General James G. Harbord, formerly Chief of Staff of the A. E. F. in France, holds that the radio is one of the most powerful forces in the war against war now under way in America. "Before the War it was quite tacitly accepted function of diplomacy to work in devious ways for the aggrandizement of one nation at the expense of another. Now it is the effort of diplomats to work in open, straightforward ways for the mutual conciliation of national aims. And behind this change of diplomatic method lies a constantly growing demand of the people in all lands for an assured state of world peace. The radio leads to sympathy and understanding, to a breaking down of isolation and self-sufficiency which cannot but make for peace. Whether the cause of a war be economic rivalry or imperialistic aggrandizement, the motive power is often the popular feeling that it is a holy war for the imposition of a superior culture on a lower; the radio blots out national idiosyncracies when the idea of a world peace becomes an international ideal" (*North American Review* for October).

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLETT BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A History of Europe, 1500-1815. The Development of European Civilization from Columbus to Metternich. By James Edward Gillespie, Ph.D. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1928. xxv, 602 pp.

A Short History of Europe, 1500-1815. By Albert Hyma. New York, F. S. Crofts & Co., 1928. xii, 496 pp.

The manuals listed above have been written by scholars who have done research of a high order in the fields they now survey in textbook form. In external organization, and to some extent in the aims professed, they are in fairly close agreement with each other and with a half-dozen texts already in use. This perhaps indicates a certain consensus of opinion among American writers as to the proper approach to this period. Hyma's professed aims are clearness, simplicity, and conciseness, with a more than customary emphasis on the place of the Dutch Netherlands in European history. Gillespie seeks to give special attention to European expansion as the rallying point for the historian of the early modern period, to social and economic conditions, to Spain as the great world power of the sixteenth century, and to the Dutch Netherlands as the economic and commercial leaders of the early seventeenth century. Gillespie is far less concerned about brevity and his book is therefore more than twice as long as Hyma's; indeed, of the recent crop of textbooks in this field intended for college use, Gillespie's is probably the longest and Hyma's the shortest.

Many of the defects of Hyma probably result from the scale on which he has sought to work. His desire for simplicity results in naïveté, his brevity and general conventionality of treatment in a certain colorlessness that will hardly recommend his work to many teachers. This conventionality is more in execution than in intention. Thus, while Professor Hyma believes that "perhaps it is not too much to say that the expansion of Europe and the attending commercial revolution have been the greatest factors in the process of change from medieval to modern civilization in Europe," he devotes six times as much space to the Reformation as to the voyages and discoveries. He says that "more than usual emphasis has been placed on the importance of the Netherlands in the economic history of the period," but he fails to give an analysis of the basis of Dutch importance that is nearly as satisfactory or as fresh as that contained in Gillespie's chapter on this subject. On the other hand, Hyma's views on the importance of the defeat of the Spanish Armada are in refreshing contrast to the usual statements on this point. Apart from these criticisms, we may say that Hyma is always clear, fair, generally accurate, but in nowise distinguished.

Gillespie presents the fullest, the best balanced, and the most mature of the recent syntheses of early modern history. Although inspired chiefly by the movement of expansion and its consequences for European history (and no writer has so successfully shown this), Gillespie does not force events into the mould of "movements" merely for the sake of that clarity a textbook sometimes attains at the expense of accuracy. Another great merit, noted by his editor, is Gillespie's estimate of the importance of events in relation to the age in which they occurred, as well as in view of their supposed "effects" on subsequent ages. Hence, there is an illuminating chapter on "Imperial Spain," and another, already mentioned, on the Netherlands. But Gillespie is not misled into calculating the importance of an event by the noise it made when it occurred.

With these qualities the narrative, in spite of a style that is not particularly engaging, always holds the reader's respect, if not always his interest. Special mention can be made of only one or two sections. The chapter on "Overseas Expansion" is as good as one would expect from a man with Gillespie's training in this field. On the other hand, those who feel that the religious upheavals of the sixteenth century have been unduly neglected in recent years will find a detailed and adequate treatment thereof in Part III, although they may lament the absence of that emphasis upon these as the all-significant forces in producing modern Europe that was familiar in the books of a generation ago. The chapter on the American Revolution, itself thoroughly up-to-date, is preceded by a useful comparison of the English colonies with those of other nations. The author's lack of obsession with an "Anglo-Saxon" point of view, of which this is an example, is probably largely responsible for many of the best features of his work. Hyma, it ought to be said, is also free from this obsession.

T. P. PEARDON.

Barnard College.

Ancient and Medieval History. By Carlton J. H. Hayes and Parker T. Moon. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929. xxi, 893 pp. Price \$2.60.

It is a curious phenomenon that while we see statistics revealing a slow decline in the study of ancient and medieval history in high schools, there should be published at the same time such an excellent text for the study of those periods. From a survey of the texts used for years in those fields one cannot but feel that the texts themselves

were an important contributory cause to the decline of interest. The happy appearance of such a splendid text as Hayes and Moon may go a long way to stimulate interest anew and retard, if not arrest, the decline.

The new text is long—some eight hundred and sixty-seven pages—but that was inevitable since the period covers all of history but the last two centuries. The concluding chapters purposely overlap chapters in the popular text of the authors on modern European history. The text under review is simply, directly and interestingly written. It appeals to the common sense of the student of high school age. Yet is never written down to his level. Rather it opens new vistas of interpretation to him and thereby quickens his interest and enlarges his mental vision. Unlike so many of its competitors, the text is thoroughly up-to-date. It is really a synthesis of the newer materials and interpretations developed by leading specialists. The proportions are very judicious: one hundred pages to Early Cultures, two hundred to the Classical Age, one hundred to the Era of Transition, one hundred to the heart of the Middle Ages, two hundred to the transition to Modern Civilization. A distinct note is the inclusion of the history of Eastern Civilization and its skilful linking with Western Civilization.

Both authors and publishers have spared no pains or expense to present the material in a pleasing form—illustrations, colored plates, maps, time charts, questions for review, topical references for further study and select bibliographies are included. The price is eminently reasonable. The book is the best text the reviewer has read on the period and as brilliant a future seems assured to it as was won by its companion volume on Modern European History.

IRVING W. RAYMOND.

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Empire and Commonwealth: Studies in Governance and Self-Government in Canada. By Chester Martin. Oxford, The Clarendon Press, 1929. xxi, 383 pp.

This book is an excellent example of the finer work which has been done in Canadian history in the last twenty years, and the essays which it contains are neat evidence of how such work has been achieved. Older monographs, special studies, and printed collections of source-materials have gone into its making, but chiefly it has grown out of long delving in the rich collections of the Archives at Ottawa, out or quiet thought, and, it may with some confidence be surmised from internal evidence, out of conversation and debate with the scholarly Canadian archivists, Dr. Doughty, Dr. Shortt, and Mr. Smith. Fifty years of work on and in the Canadian Archives are producing good fruits.

In this volume the author has successfully pursued the thread of Canadian self-government from the days before the conquest of Canada to the present, and has managed to do so episodically. His essay titles indicate the scheme—The Old Colonial System, Nova Scotia and the Old Empire, "New Subjects" in Quebec, Nova Scotia and the Second Empire, Responsible Government in Canada, The Commonwealth and Its Corollaries. Students of North American history as a whole will welcome Professor Martin's allegiance to the insistence noticeable in some recent works, that Nova Scotian history is an interlude between the First British Empire, to which she remained loyal, and the Second, to whose liberal construction she so ably contributed. The reviewer, who is doubly interested because of his own recent contribution to the thesis, welcomes in a more general treatise the reminder that emigrant New Englanders won "the rights of Englishmen" as Nova Scotians in 1758, and that their experience and ideas lived on in the loyal colony through Revolution and Loyalist settlement, and contributed notably to the political consciousness of the Dominion of Canada. Another section of the book, of almost equal importance to students of the history of Canada and of the United States, is that which deals with the genesis of the Quebec Act, and here the analysis of the Board of Trade Report of 1769 usefully recalls attention to a landmark in British colonial policy before the Revolution, although it seems questionable

whether the author should ascribe such generosity as he does to its scheme of government for Quebec. The discussion of the Act is the latest venture into that great No Man's Land of Canadian history in which historians fall out, and victory or compromise will be withheld until French and British in Canada merge their differences. The effects of the Act are obvious to all observers of North American history. The policy was good or bad in the proportion with which one welcomes or dislikes them. Professor Martin argues his case learnedly and convincingly. Here, in the emphasis which is quite properly given to Carleton's mighty influence in shaping the Act, it might have been fairer to Murray and have given a slightly truer general setting if it had been pointed out that two months after the capture of Quebec Murray was thinking and writing of it as "a Guarantee for the good Behaviour of its neighboring Colonies." It might also be added that there are two memoranda, presumably by John Pownall, in volume 48 of the *Shelburne MSS*, at Ann Arbor, which would strengthen the author's general argument concerning the Proclamation of 1763. This would not, however, affect a secondary consideration—what seems to the reviewer a rather summary dismissal of Alvord's findings as to the hasty, ill-advised assembly of several discordant elements in the final draft. The most original essay is the fourth, which is a welcome and authoritative discussion of the movement towards Responsible Government in the maritime provinces, and which does the great service of differentiating it most convincingly from the Canadian movement without underestimating the relation between them. There is no other account which can rival this one. The subject of the fifth essay is familiar, and it has been most thoroughly threshed out elsewhere, but even here Professor Martin achieves distinction and personal independence in his judgments. His last essay—that on the present British Commonwealth—comes naturally, perhaps too naturally, in the light of the deep-lying changes of 1914-26, as a coping stone for his narrative, and it is strongly to be recommended as a set of conclusions based, not on deductive abstraction, but on an inductive process of the best historical sort, with evidence from the history of the localities whose present is assayed and future tentatively forecast.

In all, we have here studies of Canadian and Imperial constitutional development, whose historical unity and validity make the book a necessary supplement to Kennedy's *Constitution of Canada*. The differences of interpretation to which reference has been made above bear witness to its merits rather than detract from them, for they are either secondary or originate around topics not yet susceptible of general agreement. The main thesis and the structures which support it command scholarly respect.

Much of the gratitude which this volume seems certain to earn will be for its graceful authority of composition, the product, as it must always be, of matured thinking and judgment. We have so many hastily-assembled books, badly written or meretricious with a brilliance which obliterates the reasonableness of historical light and shade, that honest consideration of a whole historical terrain, well written, is bound to push weaker volumes from our shelves. It is perhaps true that occasionally this volume is too compact or allusive for any but the initiate student of Canadian history, but for most of the book the style and unity are so easy and illuminating, and the thesis so convincing, that either the last will bridge the occasional gap or the reader will willingly turn to books of reference. *Empire and Commonwealth* amply corroborates the good judgment of the University of Toronto in this year choosing Professor Martin to succeed Professor Wrong as head of its history department.—B.

Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria. By Joseph Redlich. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1928. xvii + 347 pp.

The appearance of this volume has already attracted considerable attention, owing to the scarcity of worth-while material available in English on the subject of either

Austria-Hungary or its remarkable ruler, Francis Joseph. Besides the ordinary biographical material Professor Redlich has included much of the political background of affairs from 1848 to 1916. Unfortunately, however, he gives little concerning racial affairs, nor indeed is there much regarding social or economic conditions as one might have been led to expect from the man who had the distinction of being the last finance minister of the old Austro-Hungarian empire. Yet, since political conditions and trends are discussed at so great length, one wishes that more of the above suggested material might also have been included, for many political principles commonly regarded as quite natural in some environments were not, are not, and it is doubtful if they ever will be, in the opinion of the reviewer, applicable in the same fashion to the regions in central Europe over which Francis Joseph ruled.

As far as any particular thesis in regard to the biographical material is concerned, it is to the effect of clearing up much of the "moral" background of the emperor's family life and in presenting the viewpoint that despite the problems and tragedies of his life he, and he only, was able to and did overcome them. Not until two years after his death, and then only with the added incentive of famine and desolation, did the empire crumble.

Probably everyone knows that Joseph Redlich was for years a member of the Austrian *Reichsrath*, besides being finance minister, he was for a time a member of the faculty of the University of Vienna and still later of the Harvard Law School. He speaks in a rather technical fashion for a popular account, but is convincing in his able, disinterested, detached, objective and scholarly way. While his style is not brilliant it is certainly adequate, and although he makes no attempt to hold interest, neither does he seem to hold any pet axes against the grindstone of the reader's mind. Perhaps it is also necessary to add that the author's viewpoint may be more readily grasped if we realize that Dr. Redlich represented the liberals and favored equal rights, and that his co-workers and friends in the *Reichsrath* were on the same hue and cry. He dwells at length upon the traditional conservatism and the doctrine of legitimacy in both the emperor and his closest ministers—though to be sure there were few close ones after Schwarzenburg, who exercised profound influence during the formative years 1848-1852, Count Taffe and Dr. von Koerber have been eliminated.

Francis Joseph made two great mistakes, first, in "protecting" Bosnia-Herzegovina and later allowing himself to be led into a policy of annexation; secondly, in permitting the Hungarian majority too great repressive influence in Croatia-Slavonia and other provinces of the South and West—although as far as repressive measures go it is necessary to remember that the Poles in Galicia, like the Czech and German nationalists in Bohemia, might have withstood a little retributory repression for their own sins against their own minorities. Incidentally it is brought to light that in later years some of the most efficient "repressors" came from the rank and file of the Czech and Polish nobility and military. About five minor nationalities who had gravitated to the Hungarian banner were being exploited by some 300 autocratic Hungarian families who controlled that government. Under the Koerber ministry, and later, the tendency was against such practices, but the emperor was growing old, and while previously the parliamentary forms had been but shadows the emperor's authority did not now assert itself in the old customary fashion and the abuses continued.

In treating "Sarajevo" the author shows restraint and detachment, yet brings forth the efforts of the aged monarch toward peace in such a way as to give anew some genuine appreciation of his intentions and purposes. Herein may be found Francis Joseph's last failure.

While the book falls short of meeting all the expectations that might have been hoped for it, it nevertheless bears up quite nobly under the enormous burdens of its enormous subject. It is certainly superior to preceding trashy accounts of the last Hapsburg monarch and may, perhaps, have the added distinction of aiding in the

foundation for new and more important undertakings in the field of Austro-Hungarian history. And in addition it seems to contain those solid, if sometimes prosaic, elements that make for permanency.

LLOYD WENDELL ESHELMAN.

Oregon State College.

The South American Handbook. 1929. A Guide to the countries and resources of South America, inclusive of South and Central America, Mexico, and Cuba. Edited by J. A. Hunter. The South American Publishing Co., London, 1929. lxxx, 746 pp. Maps.

The Mexican Agrarian Revolution. By Frank Tannenbaum. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1929. xvi, 543 pp. Illus., tables, charts, maps. \$2.50.

The South American Handbook is the sixth of a series to appear, all numbers of which have been welcomed by travelers, business men, and students. This volume, unlike some of its predecessors, is pocket size and is neatly and serviceably bound in red flexible boards. The content has been extended somewhat more than previously, and one finds such introductory subjects treated as the geography and population of South America, conditions of travel, employment, health and hygiene, banking and insurance, steamship service, railroad lines, tables of distances, comparisons of money, weights and measures, South American sports, the products of South America, the best methods of reaching various sections and what to take along in traveling, etc. Besides this general information each state is treated in a uniform fashion under all, or most, of the following topics: the capital city of each nation with detailed descriptions, the chief cities with shorter summary descriptions; important dates in the history of each state; its physical features and products; its form of government and chief officers; industrial development and foreign trade; local currency, and standards of weights and measures; posts and telegraphs; immigration laws; and business and sightseeing trips within each country. This information is enhanced for the general reader by the addition of numerous maps and diagrams, and for the business man, particularly, by the addition of several hundred advertisements of firms in Europe and America.

Mr. Tannenbaum has presented, in the second volume under review, the results of fourteen months' study in Mexico as a research student of the Brookings Institution at Washington, D. C. In making this study the author visited every Mexican state, and had the co-operation of many officials and agencies of the Mexican government. The result is the most exhaustive account in any language of land ownership and control in Mexico during the years following the Mexican Revolution of 1910. It thus enables one to understand the social and agrarian upheaval which has occurred in this troubled state in recent years and which is responsible for many domestic and diplomatic difficulties. Incidentally, the author has shown the actual amount of land held in Mexico by foreigners, and particularly by citizens of the United States.

The work is both historical and statistical. Chapter 1 gives an excellent, though brief, summary of the development of the Mexican land system. In subsequent pages the problems of the agricultural villages and the *haciendas* are treated, and the fact is clearly brought out that the predominant agricultural organization is the latter rather than the former. The economic conditions back of the several revolutions of the past eighteen years are largely agrarian, as shown in chapters 6, 7, and 13. Proposed and consummated legislation concerning land, and particularly land distribution, is discussed in chapters 8 to 12. The influence of land legislation upon foreign ownership is pointed out in chapters 15 and 16. Three appendices summarize state agrarian legislation and give population and land statistics. Articles 27 and 123 of the constitution of 1917 are printed in two appendices. A bibliographical note and an unsatisfactory index complete the volume.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

National Governments and International Relations. By Frank Abbott Magruder. Allyn and Bacon, New York and Chicago, 1929. 595 pp.

Dr. Magruder's motive in writing this text is clearly set out, viz., that "understanding and justice may make all nations friends." The contents are distributed as follows: 203 pages on the United States (dependencies and foreign relations) and other countries of the western continent; 187 pages on the governments and foreign interests of the European countries; 74 pages on the rise of the chief countries of Asia (Turkey, Japan, China), and their part in the foreign affairs of other nations; 129 pages on the questions of international law, wars and peace movements. The book is really a modern history, but, unlike such texts, eliminates the chaff from the wheat, and motivates the material. Dr. Magruder handles shrewdly such difficult inconsistencies as the development of fascism in the midst of a government democratic in theory, by applying the use of the term "dictatorial" to limited monarchy (pp. 204-5). His carefulness in analysis of the relation of the British "Crown" to the Empire is evident. If he appears to go too much into details in some situations (such as Nicaragua affairs, the rise of modern China, etc.), it must be remembered that the very nature of modern international developments is quite complicated, and that serious international conditions often arise from seemingly trivial matters.

The practical value of the text is illustrated by many topics in public discussion, of which the following are instances: what is sovietism?; the difference between the Hague Court and the World Court; the international status of the diversion of Great Lakes waters; the government of the two parts of Ireland; the varied fortunes of Turkey; the law underlying the "I Am Alone" affair; the rise of the Kuomintang party in China; the railroad agreement back of the present dispute between Russia and China; what is extraterritoriality?; a discussion of the reparations tangle.

While the book as a whole aims to develop the international mind on the part of the student, it is in the seven chapters on war and peace that Dr. Magruder rises to inspirational heights. The study of these chapters should materially help in the training so desirable for world peace to offset the provincial, over-nationalized mind too prevalent today. Yet he does not condemn the value of the latter in past history. The book is strong in the picture of the rapid, progressive steps towards world peace. It mentions the indirect agencies, as well as the direct agencies for the fulfillment of this desideratum. In terms that the high school student can understand (if he is allowed to think a little!), he shows conclusively that there are a number of agencies "doing things" in the realm of world politics, that are surely marching towards world peace. A constructive analysis such as this book gives, rather than the mere declaiming against war, brings results. Apart from this fine analysis of world peace movements, there are other graphic descriptions: the Page Letter, descriptive of the diplomatic service; the South American viewpoint of the Monroe Doctrine; the analysis of smuggling across the Canadian border.

The mechanical makeup of the book is good; the print on several maps is possibly too fine. The illustrations are pertinent. The "Problems for Discussion," at the close of each chapter, are informational and thought provoking. While the references at the close of each chapter are usable by the more advanced student, writers of textbooks should realize that such references are not available by the average high school, and that exact pages should be given. There is one serious omission that is hard to explain: Why is a study of Australia (and of New Zealand) left out in the consideration of the British Empire? Maps of the Panama Canal Zone and of Italian colonies would have made the text clearer. Chapter XXIII, on "Immigration to the United States," should, in the opinion of the reviewer, have been placed apart from the chapters on war and peace. The text is well supplied with summaries and tabulations that are valuable aids in study.

This text is well adapted for senior classes in high schools, first year college classes, and use in current events clubs. If the material seems too extensive, the skillful teacher (and what other kinds of teachers are there today?) would handle this discriminatingly in the assignment of the lessons. All in all, the reviewer believes this text is one of the finest pieces of textbook writing for some years. The study of such books as this and of Potter and West's "International Civics" will go far towards the establishment of World Peace.

H. R. TUCKER.

Cleveland High School, St. Louis, Mo.

Economic Foreign Policy of the United States. By Benjamin H. Williams. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1929. 426 pp.

The preponderance of the economic influence upon our foreign policy is evident to the reader of this volume. Not only does the author make clear the well-known episodes of our Mexican diplomacy, of our backing of investors in the Caribbean, South America, Africa, and the Pacific, but he shows that some of our most cherished principles have been violated where the economic advantage ran counter to strict adherence. The Open Door was our policy for China, but not for South America, because our policy in both places has been one of self-interest. American interpretation of "Most-favored-nation" treatment varied, depending on whether we were the favored nation or seeking favors. Our version of "due process" has been that which has best served American financial interests.

Yet Professor Williams does not give merely an economic interpretation of our foreign policy, but an adequate exposition of our foreign policy in its economic phases. The second portion of the work is devoted to "The Diplomacy of Commerce" and treats of the international contest for control of raw materials and the competition for foreign markets. Here an interesting mass of material is presented and American participation in this most modern struggle of giants is depicted.

The treatment throughout is topical and so principles often come to the fore. Yet the author's realistic approach might well form the basis for an argument against rationalizing "principles." The State Department, and in fact most officialdom, is more opportunist than theoretical in its treatment of specific problems. The self-interest of powerful bodies within the country oftentimes changes their view of the principles involved. And yet principles are so handy when one wishes to classify a multitude of un-related facts. Realizing this the author makes a final point that the far-sighted theorist is often a better guide in the direction of a nation's foreign policy than the banker or business man.

There is so much to commend, one is loath to criticize. This volume enters a virgin field and has at present no competitor as a text. No doubt others will appear, and there is ample opportunity for a different though no less acceptable treatise. It is indeed fortunate that the venture of Professor Williams has set such a high standard.

It is to be regretted that the economic side of the immigration problem was not touched, for it parallels the tariff in being a domestic affair with great potentialities for our foreign relations. The use of this as a reference work would be facilitated by a more complete index.

MILTON W. HAMILTON.

Albright College.

The Tragic Era, The Revolution After Lincoln. By Claude G. Bowers. xxii, 567 pp. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1929.

On the very day following the assassination of Abraham Lincoln, conspiracy and corruption spread with amazing celerity throughout the legislative halls in Washington and in the capitols of the individual states. Ten years of revolutionary turmoil was ushered in by the fanaticism of the Radical Republicans. Tragedy is the only word that can explain the situation through Grant's two terms, a period during which "The Constitution was treated as a

doormat on which politicians and many army officers wiped their feet after wading in the muck." Andrew Johnson fought a truly noble battle for constitutional liberty and for sensible conciliation against a veritable angry mob of unscrupulous gamblers. It has only been within the past few years that Johnson's course has been vindicated in such splendid studies as those of Robert W. Winston and Lloyd Stryker, which have been mentioned previously in these columns. Now Claude G. Bowers, in "The Tragic Era," makes the defense of Johnson's character conclusive. His task was most difficult when "Brutal men, inspired by personal ambition or party motives, assumed the pose of philanthropists and patriots, and thus deceived and misguided vast numbers of well-meaning people in the North."

Lincoln was a very lonely man at the moment of his death, and his passing was considered a Godsend by the Radical Republicans who sought to crush the Southern whites by playing up to the emancipated negroes. The Southerners should be treated as a conquered, alien enemy, asserted their leader; the property of the Southern leaders should be seized and appropriated to the payment of the national debt. Lincoln, and Johnson following him, believed in conciliation and a sane policy free from passion and hate. Only eight hours after the death of the Emancipator the Radicals called on Johnson and tried, in vain, to win him over to their stupid policy. Thus the fight was on and it lasted until Hayes entered the White House in 1877.

Down in the South the defeated aristocrats wanted only peace, but the war was really continued by the missionaries of hate sent by the Radicals to stir up the freedmen. "With the women moved by emotions, memories of the dead, pity for the living, the Southern men, facing realities, had accepted defeat as final, and asked nothing better than a speedy removal of the soldiers and restoration of normal conditions." But Thaddeus Stevens, stalwart old leader of the Radicals, would have it otherwise. "To him the war was an opportunity to free the slaves, to punish the South, to crush its aristocracy. Yes, and Congress, not the Executive, must deal with them." "And he could not compromise, that was at once his strength and his weakness."

Throughout this excellent volume Bowers' stoutly upholds Johnson's policies. "Never in history had a President gone forth on a greater mission—to appeal for constitutional government and the restoration of union through conciliation and common sense; and never had one been so scurvily treated." He was brave enough to veto the Military Bill providing for the division of the South into military districts under a commander armed with arbitrary power. He refused also to put his signature to the Tenure-of-Office Act.

The corrupt leaders hunted about for an opportunity to bring in charges leading to impeachment. They tried to manufacture evidence of the falsest kind. Finally when Johnson removed Stanton from the War office, Stevens moved for impeachment. Had not the Tenure-of-Office Act been violated? That was in February, 1868. It was a sorry state of affairs. Money in large quantities passed hands quite openly and freely in Congressional circles and in the end the impeachment proceedings failed by one vote. Stevens was disgusted by the failure of his wicked scheme and said: "The country is going to the devil."

Meanwhile the Northern radicals and the Union League clubs were afraid that the negroes would turn for leadership to the native whites. They had to be taught to hate!

Then came the election of 1868. "It was a weird campaign." The candidates were opposite. Seymour was a profound student of government and politics; Grant knew nothing of either. Seymour was a polished orator; Grant was Orator Mum. Seymour had a long public record in civil service; Grant none. In training and qualifications, there was no comparison." Of the 5,716,082 votes cast, Grant had a popular majority of only 309,584. What followed is common knowledge, but no one has written as concisely and as vividly about Grant's grafting administration as has Mr. Bowers. There are brilliant passages in every section of the book; keen analytic character

sketches; especially notable pictures of Johnson, Stevens, Sumner, Roscoe Conkling and other leaders; most excellent summary paragraphs.

It is not too much to say that "The Tragic Era" is one of the most distinguished books of the year and ought to be read by every American who is honestly interested in the history of his country. It is at once scholarly and literary. Mr. Bowers sees beneath the debates and the printed Congressional reports and records. He has brought to light hitherto unpublished facts and tears to shreds many old misrepresentations and inaccuracies. The book is fully documented and indexed and contains a splendid workable bibliography. It seems to this reviewer that Claude G. Bowers has earned a place with Albert J. Beveridge as one of the really notable interpreters of our past. And who has drawn a more fascinating picture of the social background of post-war Washington and the South?

Philadelphia, Pa.

NATHAN G. GOODMAN.

Morale Scholarium of John of Garland. Edited by Louis John Paetow. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1927. (Pages 67-258 of Volume 4 of *Memoirs of the University of California*.) \$4.25.

In 1914, Professor Paetow edited the *Battle of the Seven Arts* of Henri D'Andelli; some time before his death he added as the second part of the study then projected an edition of the hitherto unpublished *Morale Scholarium* of John of Garland. The text is preceded by an elaborate study of the life and works of John of Garland, in which Professor Paetow performs carefully and exactly the very useful task of bringing together the varying accounts of the author from that of Boston of Bury, about 1410 A. D., down to contemporary scholarly attempts to reconstruct the divided corpus of John of Garland's works and retrace the uncertain course of his life. Professor Paetow has done his work thoroughly and has presented his conclusions in a fashion unusually vivid and interesting in this genre of precise bibliographical study. The study should be particularly useful for the fashion in which it states the detailed oppositions and contradictions as they appeared and disappeared in the tradition during five hundred years. Yet at times his very vividness and clarity betray the editor to excesses: he might have learned from the errors of his learned predecessors to practice caution, even in those portions of a controversial subject which now seem clear enough to merit positive statement (thus, "Thomas Wright finally placed John of Garland clearly and definitely in the right place and century," p. 82; "Le Clerc was right," p. 87, etc.), and the pleasant turn of his style leads sometimes to countersenses ("This [vid. the ignorance of John of Garland and his humanism] made it possible at the beginning of this century for George E. B. Saintsbury to dispose of one of his worthy countrymen with the unjustifiable remark, 'he may have been an Englishman,'" p. 77). Professor Paetow added to this account to his edition of the text a detailed description of the works of John of Garland and the works attributed to him, a statement of the manuscripts of the *Morale Scholarium*, an English paraphrase of the work, and finally four pages of plates of the manuscript. The text appears to be an excellent rendering of what seems from the plates to be a difficult document, and it is particularly commendable that the glosses of the various manuscripts have been carefully transcribed and presented.

Professor Paetow's study of John of Garland includes an excellent and tempered apology for the satirist. In it the significance of his work as a contribution to the history of medieval universities and medieval life and manners is properly stressed. Professor Paetow is concerned to point out the humanism of the writings of this thirteenth-century professor of grammar (to the extent of making him the uncredited humanist of a century in which humanism was almost extinct); he criticizes later humanists for their disdain or ignorance of this member of their clan, justifying the while, ingeniously though apologetically, the wretched

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style and scholastic interests of the author. Ultimately it is the condition of the time and the fundamentally pedagogical character of the author which render the concoction of the poem intelligible if no less bizarre and exotic, for they made necessary that it be, as well as poetry, a lexicon and a grammar and a textbook on versification. The defense reveals at least that the editor did not savor the linguistic and grammatical excesses of the poet; that distaste possibly was one of the reasons why a paraphrase was offered rather than a translation which would have followed all the tortuous play of words. The apologetic note sounds through all the abbreviations and modifications of the paraphrase. For example, the following advice to a student:

"Oppositum posito logicans fuge more perito;
 Si sapis hoc facito, faciendo victor abito,
 Testis Aristotelis qui principium probat yles,
 Qui pueros pugiles acuit ratione viriles.
 Hic verum sequere positum tibi tale tuere,
 Est positum vere Christus positum profiteri," (p. 191)
 is paraphrased by:

"In disputations, according to accepted practice, avoid the negative and argue affirmatively; if you are wise you will do this and achieve victory, as is testified by Aristotle, who demonstrates primordial matter and who sharpens the wits of boys to become champion debaters. To defend yourself in your pursuit of truth, it behooves you to profess the fundamental position that Christ is the truth" (p. 155).

Here the valorous word play of the medieval grammarian who could also turn logic and metaphysics to the service of his poetry is toned down. The advice is, to flee in the learned manner, in logical disputation, the contrary to what is posited: *rei vere posite*, the glosses suggest. The glosses help the play further by pointing out that this is a question of first imposition (that is, the imposition of words on things, as opposed to the second imposition, which is the imposition of words on words: a question that is similar to the question involved in the use of the word man in the statement—the man is tall, as opposed to the question involved in the statement—man is a common noun), and by further suggesting relevant to *logicans*, *habens materiam logice*. What Aristotle is said to have demonstrated is that matter is a principle; for the scholastics there were three *principia naturae*: form, matter, and privation. Bearing in mind then that the *positum* is the fundamental postulate or axiom from which the logician must not deviate, that matter is one of the principles of things, but is never directly an object of knowledge, the final advice accumulates: to follow the true *positum* the fundamental *positum* is to profess the *positum* of Christ truly; and as if to bring out the cumulation of the pun (the advice began with the injunction to avoid the *oppositum posito*) the gloss suggests for *vere* here, *in veritate, tale in dictis et in factis*, a truth, in other words, which logic alone could never competently pronounce on.

It is very significant that the entire poem might be subjected to such an expansion as would be involved in the lengthy commentary suggested by this passage, for it is sown with meanings to be rediscovered, and the rich showering of glosses between the lines and in the margins of the manuscripts indicates that generations of contemporaries and successors read John of Garland thus. It is a poem for expansion rather than for paraphrase and condensation. The humanism consequently which Paetow discovers in it may be the preparation of it for another age, but, if it was humanistic, there was certainly plenty of humanism in the thirteenth century. It is in any case an excellent work of scholasticism, and it is no criticism of the edition that it is here presented in so charming a humanistic form, rather it is perhaps indication that the *Morality of Students* is to become something of a classic. Professor Paetow's last considerable contribution to scholarship may fittingly, one may hope, open to a broader audience a writer of noteworthy sweep and power.

RICHARD McKEON.

Columbia University.

Virginia and The French and Indian War. By Hayes Baker-Crothers. The University of Chicago Press, 1928. ix, 179 pp.

A reading of this book brings a great amount of satisfaction. It gives a comprehensive view of the forces at work in the colony of Virginia at the time of the French and Indian War, and aids materially in understanding the problems and the reactions that would be likely to be present in the colony as the task of reconstruction was taken up. The central theme is Virginia, but the two colonies to the north and the three to the south are involved in the discussion.

Virginians were interested in the Ohio country because of the opportunities for trade in that section. Lands were also desired by the Virginians. Their claims were very extensive under the charter rights, but could not prove of value unless military possession could be established. Whenever, therefore, there seemed to be some advantage that would accrue to the claims of Virginia she showed an enlivened interest in the plans of England. Yet friction developed on the part of tidewater people or others as they saw some undue profit coming to a group other than their own. Why, for instance, should one fight in the western country if no land was to be gained personally? Why fight against the Indians if one lived on the coast and the danger came only to those near the mountains? Details of these differences are developed by the author.

The absence of intercolonial co-operation is discussed. Virginia had little interest in the actions along the north border of New York, and either refused to give assistance for campaigning in that section or gave it in such form that it was of very little value. Virginia was out of sorts with the later operations against Duquesne, because the wrong road—one through Pennsylvania—was decided to be the better road. Maryland saw no reason repeatedly why she should help in the advance on the west because her western limits were set. South Carolina was willing to help Virginia if both were to attack the same Indian foe.

England attempted to formulate some plan whereby her imperial interests could be advanced and she according called on the colonies to assist her. Controversies with the representatives of the Crown or of the proprietors ensued and the usual outcome was not to the satisfaction of the imperialists. During the later part of the war, due to the formulation of a plan that appealed because of the varied points of attack, there was the appearance of greater co-operation. Yet as soon as the local points were gained concerted action started to weaken. England could feel by the time the war was finished, that there was no sentiment that would result in any general action even against the Indians.

With this decided inability to act together either within the colony itself or with other colonies, one seeks a reason for the blending of the Virginians to such an extent that it would be possible to make any headway in the struggle to be staged within fifteen years after the close of the French War. In closing the book, the author calls attention to the course that England decided to follow on the border and in the field of finance and money. In these is to be found the force that was to bring a greater sense of unity than she had been able to show during the contest discussed.

W. L. WALLACE.

Iowa State Teachers College.

The Rise and Fall of New France. By G. M. Wrong. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1928. 2 vols., xlii, 925 pp. \$10.50.

The author of these volumes retired from the headship of the department of history at the University of Toronto two years ago, the recognized *doyen* of Canadian historians and an important contributor to the history of the United States. For many years he had been engaged in preparation of a "full-dress" history of Canada and now we have the first instalment of the work. If what is to come is of the same calibre, earlier single-handed histories of Canada are likely to be superseded except in so far as they empha-



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size peculiar racial or sectional interpretations. Moreover it should be said at once that Professor Wrong practices the *art* of history. He has a sure and personal sense of general composition and proportion, he always writes interestingly, he never forgets that he is writing about persons, and the literary merit of his work, always considerable, is occasionally outstanding. It is true that the plan of approach is a little roundabout and confusing at first, but reading on reveals that the author has chosen to secure detachment by writing as from a European point of view. There are some obvious circumstances in the modern Canadian scene which make such an approach eminently desirable, but it seems unfortunately to involve for the reader some lack of intimacy with the ways of living, the hopes, the fears, and the motives of the French Canadian colonists themselves.

The story in these volumes is that of the wave of European expansion which broke on North America and filled a pool in the north with Frenchmen. The drama is of course often local, particularly in the relations with the Indians and the English colonists, but there is also admirably maintained the central theme of the great effort of Louis XIV and Colbert, crowned, as it came to be, by negligence and the surrender of a noble enterprise to Great Britain in 1763. The achievement, and this Professor Wrong seems to deny in his title and does not evaluate in his volumes, was the firm establishment of French people and of a part of their culture in North America. New France may have fallen. French-Canadians did not. Presumably the next volumes will start from an estimate of their impact upon North America.

Since publication this history has been submitted to what seems to be one unfair criticism, namely, that it is based almost entirely on printed materials. The author made no pretence of its being otherwise, and while research in the extraordinary collections of the Archives at Ottawa would have enriched and qualified his history, there is much to be said for his stand. In the first place, a professional teacher could not in the leisure of a lifetime read all the source materials at Ottawa, even for the period of exploration and French rule, and Professor Wrong is essaying a complete history of Canada. In the second place, Canadian nationalism and the rivalry of the Canadian races have resulted in an extraordinary amount of source material being printed. There are some bad gaps, notably in commercial and industrial history, and these volumes suffer from them, but it is a great achievement for Professor Wrong to show apparently complete familiarity not only with the useful monographs and special periodical literature, but with the printed sources as well.

Enough has been said to indicate the merits and some of the minor defects of the work. Readers will find a satisfyingly rich pageant, a series of deliberate and matured judgments, and a unified interpretation of French effort in North America before 1763. Students will discover that the bibliographical notes are a complete guide to the printed materials. Book production, maps, and index are of the highest order. Our chief criticism is one indicated above. The integral and essential strength of the small French-Canadian population and the resources they conquered do not become properly real. As has been said, it is to be hoped that Professor Wrong will commence his new volumes with an economic and cultural survey which will serve to explain the otherwise curious, even miraculous, rôle of the *habitants* after 1759. If he does so he will have achieved the most difficult task in Canadian history, that of giving proper emphasis to the strength and achievement of the older partners in the Canadian nation. B.

Problems of Peace. Third Series. Lectures Delivered at the Geneva Institute of International Relations, August, 1928. Oxford University Press, London, 1929. xv, 324 pp.

This third volume of collected lectures by eminent men in the field of international relations is, like its two predecessors, chiefly a commentary upon various phases of League activities. Section I consists of a lecture on "The

Future of the League of Nations," by Wm. E. Rappard, Rector of the University of Geneva and Member of the Permanent Mandates Commission. Prof. Rappard believes that "the world and the League are on the whole moving in the right direction," that is, toward more complete international co-operation and the prevention of war.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912, OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except June, July, August, and September at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1929.

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Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

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JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

Moreover, he believes that future progress is probable, though by no means certain, depending on the "will of mankind" as expressed in the "firm and enlightened determination of all leaders of opinion."

Section II deals with "Some Problems of the Present," containing lectures or chapters on the "Working of the League Council," by Paul Mantoux; on "Disarmament," by Salvador de Madariaga; on the "First Results of the World Economic Conference," by Sir Arthur Salter; on "Tendencies in International Labor Legislation," by Edward Phelan of the I.L.O.; on "The Mandates System and the Problem of Native Labor," by H. A. Grimshaw of the I.L.O. and the Mandates Commission; and on the League and minorities, by Raymond N. Kershaw of the League Minorities Section. In each case there is a marked tendency to express only moderate views, opinions, and hopes, and to emphasize the complexity and scope of the League's activities in every phase of international life. Each contributor stresses the great progress made within the past few years, but each is careful to point out the undesirability of undue optimism and the need for much patience, compromise, and co-operation.

There follows a third Section, dealing with "Some Special Problems" and including chapters on the relationships to the League of America, the British Commonwealth, and Asia, respectively. These lectures are by Prof. Manley O. Hudson, of Harvard; Dr. Delisle Burns, of the University of Glasgow, and Lord Olivier, in that order. Prof. Hudson concludes that "the policy of the United States has in general been activated by right-minded people, but by people who were not always sufficiently careful to make themselves right-minded along with the peoples of other countries. The contribution of the United States has been slow. America has been non-co-operative at times. Yet it has always acted on an idealistic basis, and I think one has to say that with its difficulties the Government of the United States has done a great deal to relate itself to the organization of peace." Dr. Burns makes a valuable con-

tribution in suggesting that the experience of the British Commonwealth in matters of organization, administration, and co-operation among the nations in the Commonwealth may well serve as a model for co-operation among the nations of the world. "Such co-operation is a problem of administrative organization, not of emotional rhetoric, and the organization which is being worked out by the Governments and peoples of the British Commonwealth is therefore of the greatest importance internationally."

The final Section of the volume, headed "The General Problem," contains two lectures—one by Prof. Brierly, of Oxford, on "The Function of Law in International Relations," and one by Prof. Alfred Zimmermann on "The Influence of Public Opinion upon Foreign Policy." Prof. Brierly stresses "the need for a new and more spiritual conception of the meaning of law, not as a system of existing rights, but as a great and developing moral force attempting always to formulate what is just and true, and never resting content with its own handiwork. Only if we can come to look upon law in some such spirit as that shall we ever succeed in making of law an alternative to war."

As an analysis of specific problems of world interest today, *Problems of Peace* is to be recommended heartily to all students of international relations and to all those who may be interested in that most vital of desiderata—world peace.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study. Directed by W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples. University of Chicago Press, 1929. pp. xx, 666. \$4.00.

"A radical reorganization of the curricula of teacher-training institutions is demanded by a variety of conditions," say the directors in the preface to this contribution to reorganization. Having at their disposal the sum of \$42,000 to be expended in three years, the directors sought to lay foundations for a complete reorganization of the plans to train teachers for American schools.

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Believing that it is impossible to find objectives to which a large proportion of educational experts will agree, they took another tack which has been called by the name "job analysis." They proceeded to analyze the character and duties of satisfactory teachers from the standpoint of approved teachers, school administrators and professors of education; and this volume with a mass of Official Records, not published, is the report which they submitted to the donors of the fund.

The most definite outcomes of the effort are two: first, a list of twenty-five teachers' traits, and second, a list of 1001 teachers' activities. The report contains an exhaustive account of the method of arriving at these lists through collection of opinions and reducing an enormous mass of opinion to orderly statement. Another outcome is a discussion of methods of using these lists as an aid to evaluating courses of study offered in teacher-training institutions. The directors believe that all such courses should be rigidly examined to see whether they prepare teachers to do the things which are listed as teachers' activities. In this process of examination, the directors think, much of the present duplication, overlapping, lost effort and general waste of time and resources will be eliminated and much useful training which is now neglected will be taken care of.

The reader may regret that the work could not be completed for the sum of money and within the time assigned to it. The reviewer leaves the volume with a sense of disappointment growing out of the fact that the practical teacher-training administrator will have to work too hard to reduce the mass of material here offered to usable dimensions. In fact, it may be pertinent to say that this report is characteristic of many educational reports. A project is set up, the outcome of which is to reduce the mass of available knowledge and suggestion to practical use by busy administrators. The outcome is likely to be so complex and involved that those to whom service was to be done are unable in the time at their disposal to profit by the service. One of the most conspicuous contributions of this and other studies is the announcement that with more money and longer time something more practically usable could have been turned out.

The directors of this particular study would doubtless, and with much justice, reply to such criticism with the statement that it was not their duty to furnish "custom-made" curricula for teacher-training institutions. It was rather their duty to reduce the problem to its elements and then leave it not to the administrators, but to the professional curriculum-makers, those whose duty it is to supply a finished product. These investigators may expect to be compared, not to manufacturers, but to the scientific specialists in the laboratories of the corporation. It is for specialists in curriculum-making to supply the needs of the teachers' colleges.

One is justified, however, in the lament that after our prolonged discussions of teacher-training there is still no definitive codification of the body of scientific knowledge on the field of history, for example, which might constitute the basic statement to which presidents of teachers' colleges and normal schools should turn for guidance. They cannot do research for themselves, and they are not likely to take the time to study a dozen different volumes on the subject. The survey of the Missouri situation, made by Professor Bagley and others, before the World War, still seems to be the most useful constructive analysis of this question; and that pretends to be nothing more than a report on what is being done in the State of Missouri.

Those who train teachers of history and the other social studies will regret to find in the list of twenty-five teachers' traits only one "scholarship" seems to bear directly on what we have been accustomed to call teaching or even directing learning. Nearly all, if not all, of the remaining twenty-four items are desirable as traits of teachers as they are desirable as traits of all other decent and civilized people. If this list were the main outcome of the study, its title should stress not teacher-training, but rather educa-

tion in general and the training of character in general for all occupations.

The list of teachers' activities cannot be discussed briefly here, but it may be said that a very large proportion of the activities mentioned—such as "keeping records," "tabulating data," "explaining school regulations"—are the activities of administrators or clerks in education rather than teachers *qua* teachers. The directors of the study would doubtless reply to such a criticism that these are things that teachers must do under our present mismanagement, things, in fact, to which they must devote a large part of their time.

But the reviewer must not use his opportunity to wander in the field suggested by the title of the report. A reviewer's first duty is to see whether a volume is consistent and does what it sets out to do. This one seems to stand analysis from that point of view. If the main need is to set up a list of all the traits which teachers, in common with others, ought to have, the need has been met very well indeed. If another main need is to list all the activities that any teacher anywhere might have to engage in, then this need has been met so exhaustively that the list may never have to be augmented, however much it may have to be reduced.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College.

America in the Making: Part One, Founding the Nation: Part Two, Growth of the Nation. By Charles E. Chadsey, Louis Weinberg and Chester F. Miller. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1927. Vol. xiv, 467 pp. Vol. II, xli, 337 pp.

Every person interested in bettering the educational processes in this country, and especially the teaching of history and American civilization, welcomes the advance made in recent years in the art of textbook making. While comparisons are perhaps invidious, it is not too much to say that the two volumes here reviewed are among the outstanding texts for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. From the outset the story of America's development is told not in terms of politics and military events, but in terms of human problems and the conflicts to which these problems have given rise. Moreover, the authors never lose sight of the fact that America is only a segment of the world, that it affects and is affected by other civilizations.

In presenting their material the authors have judiciously and painstakingly combined the more recent topical with the older chronological treatment. In this way the story is carried forward without loss of perspective. Thus in volume one, the first subject discussed is the New World: why it was discovered, by whom conquered, the rivalry of European nations for its possession, and the character and fate of its ancient owners. Then follows the story of overseas expansion and settlement, colonial life, and the birth of a new nation. The authors have purposely sought to make their story dramatic, and in the effort they have succeeded admirably.

The study helps for each chapter are numerous and varied. They include questions on text, problems and projects, assignments for home study and for library, for supervised study in school, for socialized recitations in class, for individual or committee reports. The aids designed to relate history to geography and to current events and civics deserve special commendation. So also do the devices for the making of graphs, charts, and collecting pictures.

Both volumes are profusely illustrated with original pen-and-ink drawings which cannot fail to appeal to the pupils' imaginative powers. If the volumes go through a second edition, it would be well for both authors and publishers to consider the possibility of using colors to clarify some of the sketch maps. Thus in volume one the map of the Revolutionary War campaigns (p. 252) could, in the opinion of the reviewer, be improved by the use of colored lines to indicate campaign plans and movements. Drawings such as "Colonial Women" (volume one, p. 158) and "Power" (volume two, p. 263) are hard to beat.

All in all this should be a most successful text. It deserves wide use.—C.

Book Notes

Professor Herbert Eugene Bolton, who has already made for himself an enviable reputation by his many contributions to the literature of American history, now adds to that reputation by editing in four fat volumes Fray Francisco Palóu's *Historical Memoirs of New California* (University of California Press, Berkeley, 1926. Vol. I, xevi, 331 pp.; Vol. II, xii, 390 pp.; Vol. III, xi, 389 pp.; Vol. IV, xiv, 446 pp.). Father Palóu was the first historian of Alta California, or new California as he called it. The Memoirs, which now appear for the first time in English, are a record of what he saw in California between 1767 and 1783. Unequalled in his habits of observation and note-taking Palóu left documentary material of highest value. And it is this material which Professor Bolton has made possible for English-speaking people. His introduction, which is devoted to a sketch of Palóu and his work, is in itself an admirable biographical essay.

Professor Alice M. Baldwin's monograph, *The New England Clergy and the American Revolution* (Duke University Press, Durham, North Carolina, 1928. xiii, 222 pp.), admirably sets forth the intimate relation of the New England minister to the thought and life of eighteenth century New England. Her marshalled facts indicate beyond any doubt that the nonconformist clergy were powerfully influential in preserving, extending and popularizing the doctrines of natural right, social contract and the right of resistance to a government which transcends its authority. The author also presents in some detail the part played by the clergy in the events of the Revolution and in the establishment of the newborn commonwealth.

Latin Thought During the Middle Age, by Cesare Foligno (Oxford at the Clarendon Press, 1929. viii, 120 pp. Price, \$1.75), is a thoughtful and stimulating essay written with rare charm upon the process of transmission of the classical heritage of the West and its subsequent history in the Middle Ages. The essay is distinguished by its common sense and philosophical spirit.

An Historical Geography of Europe, 800-1789, by J. M. Thompson (Oxford at the Clarendon Press, 1929. 152 pp.), is an extremely worth-while publication. By surveying a series of physical maps and the development of European history from the decline of the Roman Empire to the eighteenth century, the author reconstructs a geographical interpretation of history during those centuries and illustrates his theses at times with specially drawn maps. Though the book is written especially for those taking the History Preliminary at Oxford, the general reader will find many interesting and occasionally novel interpretations of European history.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- A Plea for the Study of Contemporary History. R. W. Seton-Watson (*History*, April).
- War in History Teaching. (*Parents Review*, July).
- The Modern School of Biography. W. V. Gavigan (*Thought*, September).
- The Chronology of the Years 435-431 B. C. H. M. Hubbell (*Classical Philology*, July).
- The Pharisees: Their Origin and Their Philosophy. Louis Finkelstein (*Harvard Theological Review*, July).
- Medieval Academy Excavations at Cluny, III. K. J. Conant (*Speculum*, July).
- The Introduction of Arabic Science into Lorraine in the Tenth Century. J. W. Thompson (*Isis*, May).
- Hannibal and the Battle of Cannae. Lt.-Col. R. H. Kelley (*Infantry Journal*, August).
- The Achaeans. W. K. Prentice (*American Journal of Archaeology*, April-June).
- The Shield Signal at the Battle of Marathon. P. K. Baillie Reynolds (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, XLIX, pt. 1).
- The So-Called "Trade-Leagues" in Early Greek History and the Lelantine War. A. R. Burn (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, XLIX, pt. 1).
- The Completion of the Greek Republic. William Miller (*Contemporary Review*, July).
- The Athenian Calendar and the Argive Alliance. Jacob Geerlings (*Classical Philology*, July).
- Octavian's Propaganda and Antony's *De Sua Ebrietate*. Kenneth Strong (*Classical Philology*, April).
- The Rise and Progress of the Roman Law. T. J. Pitts (*American Law Review*, March, April, May).
- The Historical Significance of the Odes of Horace. E. R. Garnsey (*Classical Review*, July).
- The Coinage of the Roman Empire. Harold Mattingly (*Edinburgh Review*, April).
- The Indian Machiavelli, or Political Theory in India Two Thousand Years Ago. H. H. Gowen (*Political Science Quarterly*, June).
- St. Augustine's *City of God*: Its Plan and Development. R. J. Deferrari and M. J. Keeler (*American Journal of Philology*, April, May, June).
- The Controlling Minds of Asia. Sirdar Ikbal Ali Shah (*Fortnightly*, June).
- The Classics in the Thirteenth Century. E. K. Rand (*Speculum*, July).
- A Thirteenth-Century Miracle. G. L. Lampion (*Contemporary Review*, August).
- Theories of Church and State in the Sixteenth Century. Denis O'Kefe (*Studies*, June).
- The Scythians, Past and Present. P. S. Nazároff (*Edinburgh Review*, July).
- Alexander the Great and the Indian Frontier. R. G. Burton (*Edinburgh Review*, July).
- The Development and Consistency of Luther's Attitude to Religious Liberty. R. H. Bainton (*Harvard Theological Review*, April).
- Ludwig von Pastor, the Historian of the Popes. Felix Fellner, O. S. B. (*Catholic Historical Review*, July).
- The Evolution of Regimental Colors. Maj. T. J. Edwards (*Army Quarterly*, July).
- Diplomatic Relations after the Congress of Berlin. W. N. Medlicott (*Slavonic Review*, June).
- Bossuet and the Gallican Declaration of 1682. Alfred Barry, O. S. F. C. (*Catholic Historical Review*, July).
- The Membership of the Jacobin Clubs. Crane Brinton (*American Historical Review*, July).
- Wages and Subsistence on Spanish Treasure Ships, 1503-1660. E. J. Hamilton (*Journal of Political Economy*, August).
- Imports of American Gold and Silver into Spain, 1503-1660. E. J. Hamilton (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May).
- Spanish Reaction to Foreign Aggression in the Caribbean to about 1680. R. D. Hussey (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, August).
- Good King Wenceslaus: a Historical Sketch. Otakar Odložilík (*Slavonic Review*, June).
- Irish Benedictines in Medieval Germany. D. A. Ginchy (*Studies*, June).
- Richelieu and Bismarck. Hilaire Belloc (*Fortnightly Review*, August).
- Bismarck and His American Friends, Otto Count zu Stolberg Wernigerode (*Virginia Quarterly Review*, July).
- The Rise of Samuel Cunard. A. MacMechan (*Dalhousie Review*, July).
- The Origin of the University of Prague. Kaethe Spiegel (*Catholic Historical Review*, July).
- Hungary and the Habsburg Restoration. Valentine O'Hara (*Nineteenth Century*, August).
- The Last of the Habsburgs. Robert Dunlop (*Contemporary Review*, July).
- Some Pamphlets of the Revolt of the Netherlands against Spain. R. N. Carew Hunt (*English Historical Review*, July).
- Admiral De Ruyter. P. Geyl (*History*, April).

- The Flemish Question. Marie-Louise de Meeûs (*Nineteenth Century*, July).
- Poland and Her National Minorities. J. S. Stephens (*Contemporary Review*, July).
- The Polish-Soviet Campaign of 1920. Marjan Kukieli (*Slavonic Review*, June).
- Russian Imperialism in Asia: Its Origin, Evolution, and Character. Prince A. Lobanov-Rostovsky (*Slavonic Review*, June).
- Memoirs of the Life and Voyages of Dr. Philip Mazzei. Translated by E. C. Branchi (*William and Mary College Quarterly*, July).
- The Italian Cavalry through the Centuries. Maj. Arturo Kellner (*Cavalry Journal*, July).
- The Baltic States. H. C. Woods (*Contemporary Review*, August).
- The Turkish Republic. Agaoglu Ahmet (*Century*, August).
- Bulgaria under Tsar Simeon, II. Stepan Bobceff (*Slavonic Review*, June).
- Arabia, 1926-1929. H. St. J. B. Philby (*Contemporary Review*, June).
- Nigerian Political Institutions. B. N. Azikive (*Journal of Negro History*, July).
- What the Chinese Are Doing in Their Own History. A. W. Hummel (*American Historical Review*, July).
- The Naval Hero of Korea. Lieut.-Com. P. J. Searles (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, July). Admiral Yi.
- The Ecclesiastical Policy of Maximilian in Mexico. N. A. N. Cleven (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, August).
- The Triumvirate Influence in Mexican History. Lieut. B. D. Gill (*Infantry Journal*, May).
- THE BRITISH EMPIRE
- Migration of Historical MSS. Basil Williams (*Nineteenth Century*, July).
- The Trojan Legend in England. I. A. E. Parsons (*Modern Language Review*, July).
- Assyriology in England during and since the War. T. Fish (*Bulletin of the John Rylands Library*, Manchester, July).
- English Manorial Forms. Nellie Neilson (*American Historical Review*, July).
- The Origin of Town-Councils in England. James Tait (*English Historical Review*, April).
- The Lesser *Curia Regis* and the First Two Norman Kings of England. W. A. Morris (*American Historical Review*, July).
- An Episcopal Land-Grant of 1085. V. H. Galbraith (*English Historical Review*, July).
- Revolt of the Reformation Parliament against Ecclesiastical Exactions in England, 1529-1536. O. A. Marti (*Journal of Religion*, April).
- Secularization of Church Property in England, 1533-39. O. A. Marti (*Journal of Political Economy*, August).
- An English Knight of the Garter in the Spanish Chapel in Florence. Sister M. Aquinas Devlin (*Speculum*, July).
- Tudor Gleanings. I. A. F. Pollard (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, June). The *de facto* act of Henry VII.
- The Great Schism and the English Monasteries of the Cistercian Order. Rose Graham (*English Historical Review*, July).
- Significance of the Farmers of the Customs in Public Finance in the Middle of the Seventeenth Century. W. P. Harper (*Economica*, April).
- The British Empire and Foreign Relations. J. A. R. Marriott (*Edinburgh Review*, April).
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- The House of Lords, 1689-1783 (continued). W. D. Holdsworth (*Law Quarterly Review*, July).
- The House of Lords under Charles II (continued). A. S. Turberville (*English Historical Review*, July).
- The Fame of Sir Edward Stafford. J. E. Neale (*English Historical Review*, April).
- A Budget of Political Letters. W. Forbes Gray (*Fortnightly Review*, August).
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- The Industrial Revolution. H. L. Beales (*History*, July). Historical revision.
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- Some of Wellington's Strategical Problems, 1812, II. (*Army Quarterly*, April).
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- The Daily and Weekly Press of England in 1861. H. D. Jordan (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, July).
- Some British Opinions as to Neutral Rights, 1861 to 1865. J. P. Baxter, 3d (*American Journal of International Law*, July).
- The Suez Canal, an Achievement of Enthusiasm and Diplomacy. (*Bulletin of the Business Historical Society*, June).
- British Policy in the Near East, 1900-1909. R. W. Seton-Watson (*Contemporary Review*, June).
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- History of the London Stock Exchange. C. F. Smith (*American Economic Review*, June).
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- Foreign Religious Influences in Seventeenth-Century Scotland. G. D. Henderson (*Edinburgh Review*, April).
- Edinburgh, 1329-1929. Rosaline Masson (*Scots Magazine*, May).
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- Canada's Relations with the Empire as Seen by the *Toronto Globe*, 1857-1867. F. H. Underhill (*Canadian Historical Review*, June).
- GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS
- Russia's Pre-War Policy. Alexander Hoyos (*Contemporary Review*, May).
- Russian Peasants before the Revolution. Ganapati Pillay (*Modern Review*, June).

- The 1908 Prelude to the World War. W. L. Langer (*Foreign Affairs*, July).
- Re-Fighting the War on Paper. Charles Seymour (*Yale Review*, Summer).
- The War Diary of Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria (concluded). (*Army Quarterly*, April, July.)
- Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. (*Army Quarterly*, April, July.)
- Foch. Gen. T. H. Bliss (*Foreign Affairs*, July).
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- The Campaigns in Palestine and Egypt, 1914-1918, in relation to the General Strategy of the War. Maj.-Gen. Sir F. Maurice (*Army Quarterly*, April).
- The Operations in the Bruche Valley, August, 1914, with special reference to the Action of the French 13th Division. "Benweld" and "Chrislarke" (*Army Quarterly*, April).
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- The British Assault on the German Bases Ostend and Zeebrugge. Capt. Karl Schulte (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, July).
- The French Official Account of the Salonika Campaign, I. (*Army Quarterly*, April.)
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- Behind the German Front. Capt. B. H. Liddell Hart (*Atlantic*, July).
- More Marne through German Spectacles. (*Army Quarterly*, April.) The actions of the Guard Corps and of the right wing of the Third Army, Sept. 5-8, 1914.
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- Hungary after Ten Years. H. C. Woods (*Contemporary Review*, April).
- UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES
- John Bach McMaster, Historian of the American People. W. T. Hutchinson (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, June).
- A Unitary Course in United States History for the Junior High School, II. H. C. Hill and R. B. Weaver (*School Review*, May).
- Co-operation of State Governments with Historical Societies. Harold Colee (*Florida Historical Society Quarterly*, July).
- Historical Contradictions. (*Tyler's Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, July).
- Autobiography of Charles Gayarre. (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, January).
- The Beginnings of the Texas State Historical Association. Mrs. B. N. Taylor (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, July).
- The Outlook for Bibliographical Co-operation in the Americas. Carlos Dávila (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, August).
- Pimería Alta after Kino's Time. G. P. Hammond (*New Mexico Historical Review*, July).
- Meaning of the Name Huron as Applied to the Huron Indians. Charles Denby (*Michigan History Magazine*, Summer).
- Aboriginal Maryland, 1608-1689, I. Raphael Semmes (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, June).
- "Fort Frederick": Its Ownership and How Title was Twice Acquired by Maryland. W. McC. Brown (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, June).
- Sir John Randolph, Illustrious Uncle. Eudora R. Richardson (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, July). Great-uncle of Thomas Jefferson and of John Randolph of Roanoke, great-great-uncle of John Marshall, and great-great-uncle of Robert E. Lee.
- The Reaction in England and America to the Capture of Havana, 1762. N. V. Russell (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, August).
- The Development of Poor Relief in Colonial Virginia. M. W. Jernegan (*Social Service Review*, March).
- The Struggle for Power between the Governor and Assembly (of New Hampshire) in 1765. C. E. Perry (*New Hampshire*, May).
- Lord Stirling (William Alexander). E. Jane Peer (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, July).
- Topographical Terms in the Seventeenth-Century Records of Connecticut and Rhode Island. C. E. Tyler (*New England Quarterly*, July).
- The Story of the North Country. G. W. Reeves (*Quarterly Journal of the New York State Historical Association*, April).
- Slavery in Colonial New Jersey and the Causes Operating against Its Extension. J. C. Connolly (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).
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- Procedure in the Commons House of Assembly in Georgia. J. P. Corry (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, June).
- The Royal Government in Georgia, 1752-1776, VII. P. S. Flippin (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, June).
- The Breakdown of the Royal Management of Lands in the Southern Provinces, 1773-1775. St. G. L. Sioussat (*Agricultural History*, April).
- General Daniel Morgan's Birthplace and Life. J. F. Folsom (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, July).
- Arthur St. Clair: Western Pennsylvania's Leading Citizen, 1764-1818. Ellis Beals (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, April, July).
- The Religious Side of Joseph Brandt. M. L. Bonham, Jr. (*Journal of Religion*, July).
- Old Business Cards of Philadelphia. H. E. Gillingham (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, July).
- An Incident in the Founding of the American Navy. L. H. Bolander (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, June).
- Trenton, the First American Offensive. Capt. G. J. B. Fisher (*Coast Artillery Journal*, April).
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